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A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION IN THE HARVARD-LEXINGTON SUMMER PROGRAM.

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THE HARVARD-LEXINGTON 1963 SUMMER PROGRAM FOR TRAINING EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISORS WAS ANALYZED IN AN ATTEMPT TO CREATE A NATURAL HISTORY OF SUPERVISION AND TEACHING AND TO DISCOVER PROBLEMS OF SUPERVISION AND SUPERVISORY EDUCATION. TAPE RECORDINGS, BASED ON SUBSTANTIVE AND PROBLEMATIC RICHNESS, WERE MADE OF ALL SESSIONS IN WHICH SUPERVISION WAS BEING PLANNED AND STUDIED. HISTORICAL ANALYSIS CONSISTED OF CITING DATA EITHER AS DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE FOR INDUCTIVE DEVELOPMENT OF PROPOSITIONS AND HYPOTHESES PRESENTED OR AS AUTHENTICATING THE EXISTENCE OF SIGNIFICANT ISSUES. FINDINGS INCLUDED--(1) THE PROPONENTS OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION WERE MORE SUCCESSFUL IN ANALYZING TEACHING BEHAVIOR THAN IN CHANGING IT, (2) BOTH THE MODEL OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION AND THE TECHNIQUES USED WERE LARGELY DEFECTIVE, AND (3) THE MOST USEFUL SOURCES FOR MODIFYING THE ORIGINAL MODEL AND METHODS WERE ANALOGUES IN TEACHING AND COUNSELING. A COMPENDIUM OF PROBLEMS IS PROVIDED FOR THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION, EMPIRICAL STUDY, AND EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH IN THE AREA OF SUPERVISION. THIS MATERIAL WAS SUBMITTED AS A DISSERTATION TO HARVARD UNIVERSITY, 1966, 213 PAGES. (JK)

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A Critical Analysis of Supervision of Instruction in the Harvard-Lexington Summer Program

by

Robert Goldhammer ms 3/25/67

A Thesis Presented to the Faculty of
the Graduate School of Education
of Harvard University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

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DEDICATION

To the Memory of

Isidore Goldhammer

Preface

In its original form, this document comprised one thousand, eight hundred eighty pages, including appendices and consisted, basically, of highly detailed analyses of case materials in supervision of instruction. Because it was true that even though the names of most participants had been disguised, their behaviors could not be, and because the students and faculty members represented in the case materials deserve the protections of anonymity, Harvard University has, with the author's full agreement, restricted this dissertation from general distribution.

In order not to weaken the safeguards of this arrangement, the following abridged edition has been especially prepared for submission to the United States Office of Education. It includes certain non-specific sections of the thesis, e.g., an abstract, a brief summary of findings and various explanatory pages, and of a final chapter which consists of all the propositions, hypotheses, questions for research and recommendations for practice that were formulated in the body of the writing. This chapter is intended as a handbook for researchers in the fields of supervision and supervisor-education and represents a culmination of the entire study.

The author hopes that in its present form, this document will have utility for workers in the field without violating the rights of privacy of those people who generously participated as subjects of the study. One certain virtue of this edition is its relative wieldiness.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. ii

LIST OF FIGURES. v

ABSTRACT. vi

Chapter

I. STATEMENT AND DEFENSE OF OBJECTIVES 1

Statement of Objectives 1

Defense of Objectives 1

General Conditions of Need 1

Defense of Specific Objectives 3

II. THE HARVARD-LEXINGTON SETTING. 11

Pupil, Student and Faculty Personnel 11

Team Organization and Structure 13

III. A SYNOPSIS OF THE 1962 PROGRAM AND CATEGORIZATION OF PROBLEMS TO BE TREATED 19

Some Background Material From the 1962 Program . 19

Categorization of Problems to be Examined 30

IV. NATURAL HISTORY OF SUPERVISION AND SUPERVISOR EDUCATION AT HARVARD-LEXINGTON, 1963 33

The Orientation Period 33

Indoctrination of the First Observation Team . . 67

The Beginnings of Supervision 96

The Development of Supervision 231

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued.)

Page
The Middle Period of Supervision 362

Innovations in Supervision and Problems of Leadership 422

Fundamental Changes in Team Organization and Supervisory Roles: Associated Problems . . . 525

The Final Stage: Full Analyses, Supervision of Planning and of Group Processes 552

V. COMPENDIUM OF PROBLEMS FOR THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION, EMPIRICAL STUDY AND EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE 664

APPENDIX 793

INDEX OF EXCERPTS FROM CASE MATERIAL 1873

BIBLIOGRAPHY 1878

VITA 1880

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1. Structure of Team C in 1962 15

2. Categorization of Problems According to Sources From Which They Derived and Issues to Which They Pertain 31

3. Major Characteristics of the First Cycle of Supervision 145

4. Sample of Educational Premises Having Currency in the Second Week of Harvard-Lexington, 1963 187

5. Problems Existing in Relation to "Non-Directive" Supervision 438

ABSTRACT

I. Objectives of Study

This thesis represents an attempt to create a natural history of supervision and teaching as it occurred in the Harvard-Lexington Summer Program of 1963 and, by detailed analysis of the historical data, to articulate problematical elements of such supervision that have not been formerly treated in the literature and to map the terrain of problems in supervision and supervisor education that require research. An additional objective is to present case materials in supervision and supervisor education, that are unprecedentedly comprehensive, to serve as a source of clinical data for future researchers in the field. Such materials are included in the appendix of this work.

The need for this study arises from an absence, in the literature, of acceptable theoretical and operational models of supervision, of means for inducting neophyte supervisors into professional practice, of methods for evaluating supervision, of models of supervision in conjunction with team teaching, and of approaches to supervision that incorporate process goals as well as technical ones. A further need derives from failures, in the past, to present, as completely as possible, a description of the approach that has been named "clinical supervision" and to engage in critical analysis of that practice. Particularly inasmuch as clinical supervision has become progressively more influential in the field, during the last two years, it is

appropriate, at this early stage in its evolution, to report problems that have arisen in the experience of workers who have attempted to develop it.

II. Procedures of Study

The author served, in 1963, as an Observation Team Leader Coordinator in the Harvard-Lexington Summer Program. In this role, he was responsible for directing the supervision of graduate students on a teaching team and the training of other students in the disciplines of educational supervision.

Tape recordings were made of all sessions in which supervision was being planned, enacted, evaluated and studied. Selected tapes were transcribed as type-scripts to serve as the basic data for this study. Selection criteria comprised judgments regarding the substantive and problematical richness of material, the condition of including longitudinal data on salient problems, the condition of presenting conflicting data in order to demonstrate the ambiguity of certain phenomena and interpretations and inconsistencies relating to certain key propositions of clinical supervision, and technical factors, e.g., the intelligibility of individual tape recordings.

Preparation for the analysis of the 1963 program consists of statements and defense of objectives, descriptions of the Harvard-Lexington setting, and a synopsis of the 1962 Harvard-Lexington Summer Program.

Methods of historical analysis consist, principally, of citing clinical data either as documentary evidence for propositions and hypotheses presented, as a basis for developing propositions and hypotheses inductively, or for the purpose of authenticating the existence of certain issues that are thought to be significant for study. Whereas the general approach is to develop the data in their chronological sequences, data relating to specific problems are frequently drawn together without reference to chronology. In such instances, this second principle of juxtaposition, viz., relevance, can be discerned easily because every excerpt from the case material is indexed to the session in question and all sessions are dated.

Because, as a history and a dialectical analysis of historical data, this thesis is a lengthy document and, consequently, is somewhat unwieldy as a handbook for field research, the final chapter is arranged as a compendium of problems which are stated briefly and in categories derived from the general study.

Besides serving as a source for independent study of relevant issues, the case materials included in the appendix, together with the index of excerpts, enable readers to locate specific data in their complete contexts, should that be desirable for purposes of validating interpretations offered or of enriching the meaning of excerpts by consulting the full document.

III. Findings of Study

Because this thesis is not a conventional experimental study, it is not altogether appropriate to think of "findings" in the sense that findings generally represent culminations of such studies. Nevertheless, the hypotheses and interpretations that have been formulated and, particularly, the propositions and recommendations appearing in the compendium of problems, are, in effect, findings that experience and examination of the data have generated for us. Every problem proposed for future study represents a finding that has emerged from this study, viz., that certain problems exist which, generally, had not been recognized heretofore. Strategies proposed for future research generally express implicit findings, e.g., that our experience gives reasons to suspect that such strategies will be useful and that alternative strategies are unlikely to be productive.

In general, some fundamental empirical findings of this study are (1) that proponents of clinical supervision are characteristically more successful in analyzing teaching behavior than in changing it; (2) that both the model of clinical supervision that we have used and the techniques that have been employed to disseminate it and to equip supervision students with operational skills for its implementation have been largely defective (specific inadequacies are treated in the text); and (3) that the most useful sources of theoretical and operational constructs for modifying the original model and methods for teaching and supervision have come from analogues in teaching and counseling.

Specific findings relating to specific supervisory and instructional strategies and gambits are reported from moment to moment in the thesis, most often tentatively and as proposed bases for systematic research that could not have been formulated in advance of this analysis.

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT AND DEFENSE OF OBJECTIVES

1. Statement of Objectives

Our objectives in this dissertation were first, to develop case materials in supervision of instruction; second, to compose a natural history of supervision as it was practiced at Harvard-Lexington and in other programs subsequently; third, to use the data as empirical evidence that certain real problems exist in the field; fourth, to mine the data for researchable questions and problems of general educational significance; fifth, to mine the data for problems of special significance to supervision, supervision in team teaching, and supervisor education; and sixth, to analyze the case materials for the purpose of inventing hypotheses to account for various historical phenomena we have recorded.

2. Defense of Objectives

A. General Conditions of Need

A review of the literature in educational supervision discloses that reliable evaluation studies and extensive illustrations of supervisory behavior do not exist.[1] Models of supervision tend to lack operational detail. Articles concerning supervisory problems or the results of various approaches in supervision do not provide convincing definitions of what supervision is or of what it should be, either in general or in their own limited contexts. Even when supervisory behavior has been categorized taxonomically so that, for example, specific illustrations of authoritarian, democratic, punitive, or supportive supervision are provided, such examples still tend to be isolated and discrete, leaving students of supervision without integrated pictures of what has actually taken place. Supervision not only operates in different ways according to different systems, but even proponents of the same general model are likely to engage in diverse practices because of idiosyncracies arising in specific supervisory relationships but also, we mean to emphasize, because the models themselves tend to be ambiguous.

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[1] A review of the literature in educational supervision appears in another paper by this author: Goldhammer, R. "A Critical Analysis of a Special Program of Teacher-Training Through Clinical Supervision." Unpublished Special Paper. Harvard University, 1962.

If descriptions of supervision in the literature lack body, if they fail to provide integrated pictures of supervisory practice, it is also true that no literature exists, as such, on graduate programs in supervisor education. Those of us involved in inventing and administering seminars and practicums in that connection, rely almost entirely upon our own ingenuity because of the absence of useful references and, until this dissertation was undertaken, we did little at all to disseminate our own ideas and reports of our experiences to other educators.

Finally, although it is true that team teaching can provide logistic options that make it possible to create observational roles and to perform intrateam supervision, the literature on teaming does not place major emphasis on that possibility, either for general practice or as a rationale for team teaching. Our conversations with educators from universities throughout the country, some of whom are presently involved in teaching teams at the university level, have informed us that, by and large, they have made little use of existing opportunities to observe, analyze, and influence each other's teaching behavior, although they generally agree that they would like to adopt that practice sometime in the future.[2]

In the Harvard-Lexington Summer Programs of 1962 and 1963, the writer taught supervision of instruction to graduate students in each of two courses: a seminar and practicum in teaching, for experienced teachers, and a seminar and practicum in supervision, for educational supervisors. Both practicums were coordinated in a team teaching organization. In 1963, we tape-recorded every meeting in which planning, enactment, and evaluation of supervision took place. Certain sequences of the recordings were converted into typescripts that constitute the "raw data" with which we will deal in this writing.

B. Defense of Specific Objectives

This dissertation's objectives arise from the conditions we have identified. The following arguments refer to the goals that were specified in Section 1, above.

a. Development of Case Materials in Supervision

The case materials in supervision are intended to fulfill indepenpurposes as well as purposes related to this writing. Although their preparation does not, in itself, satisfy the conditions of scholarly writing, we believe that the general utility of this thesis has been enhanced by their inclusion.

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[2] As a panelist in the symposium, "Team Teaching in the Education of Teachers: The 'Principles and Problems' Course" at the 1965 annual AERA meeting, and as a conference chairman at the 1965 meeting of the Center for the Study of Instruction (NEA) on problems in university-level team teaching, the author conversed with many educators on this topic and delivered two papers on the supervisory rationale for teaming which are obtainable, by referring to the name of each conference, from the School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

By themselves, the cases constitute a unique document in educational literature in that they provide unabridged illustrations of supervisors and teachers operating in professional relationships and of supervision students preoccupied in refining their professional practices. As such, they create comprehensive representations of supervision and of supervisor education that have been absent from the literature heretofore.

One justification for documenting clinical supervision, as we practiced it, is that its association with programs offered by Harvard University, in addition to inherent strengths it may possess, have attracted national attention and have created audiences that desire detailed information about it.[3,4] We suspect that in many instances examples of what we do would be more useful than our own descriptions.

Besides providing an image of supervision, the case materials have potential value as a basis for dialectic and research. They comprise data that can be shared commonly by future students. They show, in fine detail, a broad array of problems associated with team teaching for which observation-supervision did exist as a principal rationale. The data incorporate issues of general educational significance and represent an unprecedently rich object for independent study. Psychological, sociological,

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[3] "Clinical supervision" will be defined and represented by many examples in the writing that follows.

[4] The students and faculties of Harvard-Lexington Summer Programs came from schools throughout the country. In 1964, at the university of Pittsburgh, we offered an institute in supervision that was attended by approximately thirty professors from universities in Oregon and Puerto Rico who were contemplating the establishment of their own institutes modeled after those we developed at Harvard and in Pittsburgh.

linguistic, and group dynamic analyses, for example, might be performed on these cases in relation to germane issues.

In our judgment, it was necessary to include the case materials in connection with this writing as well as because of their intrinsic value. Inasmuch as our task is generally one of analysis and interpretation, requiring, repeatedly, the presentation of examined inferences, the handiness of these data provide us the chance to check our impressions against actual events and protect the integrity and usefulness of this document for the reader, who may consult the same data and arrive at interpretations of them independently. Given the character of our undertaking, we intend, by including the data, to avoid the necessity of requiring our readers to take our word for the existence or the interpretation of historical events.

b. A Natural History of Supervision[5]

Three reasons for composing a natural history of this kind have already been given, viz., to chronicle a unique and influential graduate program in our field of specialization; to capitalize on experiences we have had that might otherwise fail to enrich educational supervision generally; and to communicate an image of the supervision we developed which provides as full a picture as it can of supervisory behavior.

Just as generalized descriptions unaccompanied by objective data are not likely to be worth much to researchers in education, a proliferation of data which have not been edited or systematized is too unwieldy to be very useful as a source of information and might fail, by itself, to communicate certain ideas we have formulated as a result of our own participation in the recorded events. The history that follows is our principal vehicle for expressing such ideas.

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[5] The term "natural history" was chosen primarily to convey the contemporaneous relationship that existed between the writer and the events being considered.

The two most important purposes of this history are first, to cite the data we have collected in order to demonstrate the existence of certain real problems and second, to specify some directions in which further study might profitably be focused.

The question of "real problems" arose from our experiences at Harvard-Lexington and from our observations of other workers in the field of supervision. In simple terms, the situation has often been one in which the faculty either girded itself to deal with problems that never materialized, or began to study certain problems that turned out to be other than they seemed in the beginning. The same phenomenon occurred often in supervisory relationships: the supervisors' predictions of what would be likely to threaten or to relax a supervisee, for example, derived from a host of psychological assumptions that, in many cases, seemed to be arbitrary and unrealistic.

A mythology of what to do and of what to avoid in supervision, which sprang from limited individual and common experiences and from the literature, dictated much of our behavior in the program. Intuitively, we suspected, for example, that it was good to avoid "emotional material" in supervision and that we should concentrate upon "superficial behaviors," i.e., behavior not "deeply rooted in personality;" we supposed it was bad to introduce outside information we might have had about supervisees into supervisory dialogues; we believed it was necessary to employ one-to-one supervision rather than supervision by groups when teachers displayed severe anxiety; and it was generally assumed that in supervision an equal number of strengths in teaching should be cited to offset the ostensibly negative psychological effects associated with citing weaknesses.

Our present point is not merely that our predictions were frequently incorrect, that it was often impossible to determine whether or not they had been correct, or that our assumptions and constructs were many times ingenuous. It is, more importantly, that the very dimensions along which our inquiries were structured derived from our suppositions about what kinds of thingswere likely to be significant and that consequently, from time to time, our energies were spent in figmental problems while real ones went unattended.

Whereas it may be inevitable that intuition must dictate the directions taken by inquiries concerned with interpeting and predicting complex human behavior, our history is partly motivated by the notion that the range of such intuitions can be delimited beforehand by reference to relevant empirical data. In other words, we intend, by composing this natural history of supervision, to establish, empirically, that certain issues did exist in fact and, by that means, to secure the realism of future inquiries related to issues whose existence has been demonstrated. Our own experience suggests that any work which results in a sharpened differentiation between actual dilemmas in educational supervision and hypothetical ones, would represent an important contribution to the field. In the course of our writing we will document the existence of certain problems empirically, we will present evidence that certain issues of common interest in supervision are largely fictitious, we will attempt to show that some seemingly simple questions in supervision are actually complex and to articulate their component parts, and we will pose some new questions that have not yet been treated systematically in the literature.

To establish the historical existence of real problems in supervision is closely related to our second principal purpose, viz., to specify directions for future research. It is in connection to this goal that the dissertation becomes more than a simple chronicle and requires original intellectual work by the writer. In this context, our objective is twofold: to perform analyses of supervision and of instruction in supervision which raise this document from a repertorial level to an interpretive one, which result in the contribution of new, substantive thinking in the field, and which acquit our undertaking as productive research; and second, to exemplify methods of analyzing case materials in supervision and in teaching, and professional behavior in those contexts, which reflect our practices at Harvard-Lexington and which should be useful to the educational community.

Our point of departure is from the general observation that research of this kind is required presently in supervision. The current literature and our own experiences suggest that whereas highly specific, experimental research can yield productive insights at the moment, there is still a strong possibility that such research will be wasted on relatively inconsequential problems and that separate researches will not be integratable. As we see it, the development of a natural history of supervision is not only timely for these reasons, but represents the truest economy vis-a-vis the general needs for more information about how supervision operates, what kinds of investigation and reforms it requires, formulation of stronger theoretical and operational models in the field, and indications of which specific questions seem ready for experimental investigations and which do not.

Our original intentions, when this dissertation was conceived, were to cull the case material for testable hypotheses and for questions congenial to rigorous experimental study and then to propose specific research strategies for some of the salient problems that were unearthed. We have not held ourselves to that commitment entirely, however, because our involvement in the data has convinced us that the majority of problems in supervision may not be susceptible to experimentation but do require prosecution of some kind nevertheless.

Consequently, our efforts are directed toward formulating proposals for empirical study which consists simply of trying certain things and then watching to see what happens; theoretical inquiries which include logical and dialectical analyses of phenomena in supervision; recommendations for changes in policy, practice, organization and methodology in supervision and supervisor education which are indicated by the data; and general proposals concerning perspectives from which to study supervision as well as for formal research.

The compendium of problems that concludes our writing should serve as an important, if not exhaustive, source of problems for immediate and future study. In short, our defense of the dissertation's objectives consists fundamentally of two arguments, viz., that the development of a natural history of supervision will benefit the field presently and that the task we have undertaken requires disciplined and creative activity communsurate with scholarly inquiry.

According to our understanding, a hallmark of integrity in research is that the researcher not only develops his problem or his arguments persuasively, but also that he makes himself vulnerable by exposing the reasoning that underlies his intellectual commitments. Our efforts to achieve integrity in this writing consist primarily of maintaining an aspect of such vulnerability throughout and of initiating our own, public examination of the assumptions we make and have made in the past.

Categorization of Problems to be Examined

The problems of Harvard-Lexington and those pertaining to supervision generally, that we will treat below, arose from many sources. A brief categorization of the areas to be considered should simplify the reading that follows.

Our general selection criteria for problems are first, that they must be germane to theory, practice, and/or research in supervision and/or in programs of supervisor education. Problems relating to team teaching are broached when they are relevant to supervision in that context.

These criteria have been used to screen issues belonging to the categories described in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2

CATEGORIZATION OF PROBLEMS ACCORDING TO SOURCES FROM WHICH THEY DERIVED AND ISSUES TO WHICH THEY PERTAIN

1. Academic	Problems assigned for study in the teaching and supervision seminars.
2. Implementational	Problems connected to discovering and managing applications of issues from the seminars to behavior in the practicum; problems of relating theory to practice.
3. Theoretical	Problems relating to logical inconsistencies, untested assumptions, structural gaps, ambiguity and incompleteness of supervisory and instructional models that were employed.
4. Logistic	Problems involving allocation of time, use of space and deployment of personnel. Also related administrative problems.
5. Functional	Problems relating to factors that hindered the students professional and intellectual functioning; obstacles to relevant learning; aides to learning.

FIGURE 2 (Continued)

6. Diagnosis and Treatment	Fundamental problems of supervisory strategy; problems relating to identification of elements for supervisory treatment and determination of treatment approaches.
7. Social	Problems associated with social status in supervisory and team hierarchies.
8. Role Definitions	Problems of designing and projecting supervisory roles.
9. Leadership	Problems of leadership in supervision.
10. Morale	Problems of morale in supervision.
11. Process	Problems related to process goals in supervision.
12. Values	Problems involving conflicting values in supervision and supervisor education.
13. Philosophy	Ethical and moral problems; rationales in supervision.

These categories will not always be distinct. In many cases they overlap, and any given problem is likely to be classifiable in more than one category.

Three general findings can be extrapolated from this work. The first is that as proponents of clinical supervision, we have characteristically been more successful in analyzing teaching behavior than in changing it. This proposition seems supported first, by the evidence that a majority of our students and colleagues have reported this perception to us, at Harvard-Lexington 1963 and in similar programs since then; second, patterns of our own and of the students' teaching behavior that we sought to modify through supervision have often failed to change, despite the fact that our analyses of the teaching in question seemed valid and persuasive, even to the supervisees; and third, as our writing has demonstrated, the time that we allocated to analyzing teaching behavior almost always exceeded the time that was given to formulating strategies for supervision and evaluating the effects of supervision largely, we propose, because our analytic constructs were more numerous and more persuasive to us than our ideas for treatment.

Apparent discrepancies between our analytic effectiveness and supervisory ineffectiveness may be partly attributable to the following factors: (1) In some ways, that will be expanded below, analysis represents an intellectually easier task than supervisory treatment; (2) treatment is often accompanied by emotional stresses that are absent from analysis; (3) because they lack psychological training, supervisors are likely not to recognize the significance of psychological variables that operate in supervision; and (4) our evaluation criteria for effective supervision are not formulated succinctly nor have they been validated by research.

Seen from the view that analysis is principally a set of cognitive acts involving logical operations upon data, while treatment, or modification of teaching, aims to affect complex behavioral variables which are often set, recalcitrantly, into relatively fixed patterns of behavior, our apparent power in the first case and weakness in the second should not be surprising. Analogously, the attrition of students of psychoanalysis who were successful in their course work but who fail to become clinical practitioners testifies to the relative simplicity of academic, i.e., analytic activity in contrast to treatment and modification of behavior. And again, metaphorically, while chemical analysis of protoplasm has achieved a high degree of sophistication, the synthesis of living protoplasm and capabilities for regulating its functional processes are primitive by comparison.

Operations upon data are simple, in the sense that the analyst can select as few variables as he pleases to examine and is free to consider selected relationships among variables rather than the totality of existing relationships. Moreover, the data are fixed and stable. Although analysis can be performed at a very complex level indeed, the analyst does not have to be concerned with generating new and different data nor with establishing human interactions toward that end, until he crosses into professional practice. Although failures in treatment immediately suggest deficiencies in the prior analysis, the experiences reported in this dissertation suggest that even analyses that seemed basically sound to the supervisees were sometimes wasted because of our ignorance of factors that were important in treatment and our technical limitations for implementing supervisory strategies that seemed valid beforehand. An important possibility to consider is that, as a matter of fact, the power and validity of our analyses was illusory in one respect, at least, viz., that while an analytic system can have internal consistency and logical integrity, it can, simultaneously, fail to correspond completely with the realities at which it is directed. This condition seems demonstrated by the existence of well established theories of personality and psychotherapy, on the one hand, and the general absence of proven therapeutic successes, on the other. The point, presently, is that our apparent successes in analysis and weaknesses in supervision may reflect this problem in correspondence.

Because the data are stable, the analyst can consult them at whatever pace he finds comfortable. He can solicit consensus from other analysts to safeguard against implicit assumptions and values that may subtly influence his interpretations. In contrast, the clinical supervisor must operate within a framework of passing and limited time; in a flow of immediacies in which opportunities for reconsideration and consensual validation are generally absent except in conjunction with the supervisee, whose own involvement, like the supervisor's, can militate against objective analysis and decision-making. He must operate in a context of cognitive and affective variables whose interrelationships are often either not logical or whose logic he cannot comprehend; as an active or participating agent in connection to mental processes of which some are metastable while others seem refractory to outside influence; and at a fatiguing level of cognitive multiplicity.

Often in the same moment, he must assimilate and organize the supervisee's spoken statements; he must be alert to unverbalized meanings, e.g., expressions of anxiety, that accompany the supervisee's statements; he must formulate responses and initiate statements of his own that are consistent with his supervisory goals and with the model from which he operates; he must be sensitive to his own perceptual and interpretive biases and should attempt to compensate for them; and he must monitor his own feelings in order to be able to assess, at any time, whether his extraneous needs or the supervisee's requirements are likely to be motivating his behavior.

It also seems true that the practicing supervisor operates under conditions of stress that are absent from analysis, viz., that while errors of analysis only affect the quality of analysis and can generally be corrected, errors in treatment affect the existence of another person and sometimes cannot be corrected; the stakes, in treatment, are higher. And while the quality of analysis can be defined in formal terms, the reasons, incentives, reinforcements and obstructions to modifying human behavior incorporate a universe of elements whose identities and effects and relationships are generally mysterious.

Finally, the criteria by which we attempted to evaluate supervisory outcomes were probably too gross and too unspecific. Even without considering the general problem of establishing cause-effect relationships between supervision and teaching behavior, it seems likely first, that we failed to detect small and subtle changes that resulted from supervision and second, that the duration of our contacts with supervisees has not been sufficient to reveal long-range effects of our work with them. It is historically true that in cases where we felt confident that supervision had been successful, the "results" we considered were almost invariably large, dramatic, and immediate.

Our second general finding is that both the model of clinical supervision that we have used and the techniques that have been employed to disseminate it and to equip supervision students with operational skills for its implementation have been largely defective. We have already written at length about deficiencies in the original model, in short, that it was too general, too simple and too abridged to generate operational strategies and theoretical constructs for meeting a vast array of exigencies that arose in supervision. It also seemed that, possibly as a result of our own teaching, the students tended to become fixed in the task of mastering the original, inadequate model rather than in the invention of multiple models of supervision and that, finding themselves without persuasive reasons for doing what the original model suggested, they tended to implement it ritualistically. For the most part, the model with which we began was simply an organizational paradigm, a format for supervision, rather than an integrated body of rationales, hypotheses, propositions and practices in supervision.

While improvement and sophistication of supervisory models must await future research and development in the field, certain problems relating to the teaching and dissemination of such models should be restated in this summary. We pose the following questions in order of increasing complexity. First, in presenting the original model, we tended to emphasize its positive aspects but to neglect unanswered questions and dilemmas by which it is accompanied; our enthusiasm to articulate the "ideal" eclipsed the existence of many difficulties and the fact that clinical supervision, rather than representing a collection of certainties, is, in fact, highly problematical and incorporates many tentative hypotheses and unresolved issues. Had we been more tentative and less positive, it seems likely that the students' eventual discoveries of limitations in the system would not have left them as displeased and as disenchanted as the case materials suggest they were.

Second, we tended to use a definitional approach rather than an inductive one in our teaching about supervision. Because the data suggest that students developed definitional fluency which, among other things, tended to disguise limitations in their mastery of relevant concepts, our didactic approach seems not to have been very productive, in retrospect. We infer that one factor which may have been responsible for the students' tendencies to follow the original model ritualistically and for their apparent disinclination or inability to contemplate multiple models of supervision was precisely this condition of superficial "knowing." It is additionally true, however, that whereas we placed a premium upon developing multiple models, we did not, in fact, emphasize such multiplicity in our teaching, particularly in early stages of the program. By focusing upon the single model as we did, there is a good chance that we taught the students to do the same, despite our injunctions to the contrary.

Third, the very enthusiasm and fluency with which we approached our teaching seems likely to have contributed to the charasmatic effects that have been postulated and to have, consequently, distracted students from the substantive content of our teaching. The data have demonstrated, for example, that many students derived inferences from what we said that were sometimes at direct cross-purposes to the understandings we meant to communicate and that, through imitation or identification, they often reproduced superficial aspects of our behavior as well as those technical features we intended to transmit. We were not sufficiently cognizant of process learnings that were likely to derive from our teaching behavior, i.e., of superfluous and contradictory incidental learnings, to regulate our behavior deliberately to avoid such outcomes and to achieve other outcomes. In short, we mean to suggest, thus far, that our attempts to disseminate the concept(s) of clinical supervision were defective because our teaching was basically definitional, more certain than tentative, single-tracked rather than pluralistic, and crowded with superfluous manifestations of our own enthusiasm and unexplicated misgivings that muddled the clarity of basic concepts and distracted attention from substantive issues.

Fourth, perhaps the most difficult and complex problem in our teaching was represented by discrepancies between what we said about teaching and supervision and our behavior as teachers and supervisors and by our general lack of ingenuity for turning such discrepancies to instructional advantage for the students. While we advocated multiple models of supervision, we centered attention upon a single model; while we advocated teaching and supervision that incorporated process goals, our own teaching and supervision frequently failed to do so effectively; while we urged experimentation in inductive teaching and in what we began to call "non-directive" supervision, we tended, ourselves, toward didactic lecturing and "advice-giving" in supervision; while we enjoined teachers and supervisors to aim for autonomy in their practices, our definitional and authoritative approaches tended to increase the students' dependencies upon us; while we stressed the importance of collecting unbiased behavioral data, of building inferences objectively upon such data, and of using data persuasively in supervision conferences, our own data were often not of high quality and our use of data in conferences was often weak; and while we stressed the importance of selecting supervisory issues that were few in number and which might predictably be manageable by the supervisee, we sometimes saturated supervision conferences with more issues than were assimilable and inadvertantly intoduced material that was intellectually or emotionally unmanageable for the teacher.

We do not mean to contend that commiting such errors is inherently bad. But given the cynicism and disappointment and hostility that students eventually expressed, we propose, instead, that our attention to our own behavior was neither as careful nor as systematic as it might have been and that one consequence was that we overburdened students' capacities to endure such inconsistencies and may have partly defeated our own purposes by frustrating them too much in this manner. It seems unfortunately true that the quality and character of teaching and supervision, which are always important, are particularly important in programs where these disciplines are the objects of study. In simple terms, we believe that while our own behavior might have "passed," somehow, in another situation, it simply was not careful enough in the context we had established.

Our third general discovery is that the most useful sources of theoretical and operational constructs for modifying the original model, and for methods of teaching and supervision, have come from analogues in teaching and counseling. As we attempt to expand our original supervisory schema and to reconcile paradigms of supervision with realities of supervision, experience repeatedly leads us to psychology, to treatment and to teaching for the strategies and solutions we require. In simple terms, if supervision is likely to become a unique professional discipline, its uniqueness will consist of the special ways in which it amalgamates theories and practices from teaching and counseling; the special synthesis it performs of these contributory disciplines.

This dissertation has generated the proposition that in the sense that it transmits substantive and technical knowledge to teachers, supervision is teaching; in the sense that it aims to modify complex behavioral patterns and, perforce, the psychological substrates of such patterns, to affect professional identities, to engage teachers and supervisors in systematic self-examination, to emphasize self-learning, and to offer psychological support in these processes, supervision is counseling; in the sense that as teaching supervision aims for more than the transmission of substantive and technical knowledge while, as counseling, it permits priorities to be placed on technical learning and allows the supervisor to introduce values and standards of his own, supervision is not just teaching or just counseling as these are commonly defined but is, rather, a discipline whose objectives are derived from both sources and from their areas of congruency and whose techniques must, we suspect, also be borrowed from both sources.

We think of supervision as a possible discipline rather than as an actual one, because in addition to the need for research to discover applicable elements from teaching and counseling, philosophical questions remain as, for example, that of whether in the very process of accomodating principles and practices of treatment to a system of instruction, those principles and practices will lose the integrity of the discipline for which they were originally construed. In more concrete terms, the question becomes: When, in addition to objective learning, teaching aims to establish what has been called "therapeutic learning," and when, in addition to therapeutic learning, counseling becomes a handmaiden to professional training, does the resulting teaching or counseling still represent sensible practice, vis-a-vis its parent discipline?

One reason for optimism in prosecuting such questions is that disciplinary accomodations of the kind in question already exist as, for example, in modern theories of process education which aim openly for certain "therapeutic" outcomes, e.g., "self-evaluation, self-as-process," and "autonomy," and in the so-called "didactic analyses" of psychoanalytic training in which the therapeutic process is employed, partly, as a means for teaching the therapeutic process.

It should be emphasized that our thinking in these terms has not arisen simply from theoretical predilections but has, rather, been influenced by the actual experiences we have reported in supervision and by the empirical data we have examined. Experience has suggested that our successes and failures as teachers and supervisors have often been associated with our ability or inability to deal insightfully with certain psychological variables. As instructors who, either being untutored in counseling or trained as counselors but reluctant to engage in counseling practices without the conventional safeguards of supervision and confidentiality, we were least well equipped to deal with expressions of anxiety, ambivalence and threat and with indications that supervisees' reality-testing, particularly in relation to their own resources, limitations, motives and emotional requirements was somehow faulty. Our strategies of reinforcement were generally intuitive rather than systematic. Our attempts to view things as from the supervisee's frame of reference were often ingenuous. Our guesses about which supervisory issues might be emotionally innocuous to treat and which issues were so deeply rooted in personal necessities that they were, metaphorically, too hot to handle, were frequently wrong. Our decisions relating to whether, at any given juncture in supervision, it would be most productive to operate within the supervisee's value system or to introduce the supervisor's values were generally capricious because, having no systematic recourse to psychological theory, i.e., to a system of treatment principles, we tended to operate by trial-and-error.

That professional (teaching) behavior is often, irrevocably, associated with the teacher's image of himself in the professional role and does not become modified simply as a result of technical instruction, and that the teacher's concept of himself _qua_ teacher is proably inseparable from his general self-concept, are the conditions that turn our attention, hopefully, to ego psychology and counseling for the concepts and techniques we need to build useful theories and practices in supervision. Insofar as "process education" incorporates strategies for increasing the efficiency of substantive learning by concentrating upon one's own learning processes as well as upon the substantive content, and particularly because it shares with counseling a focus upon "self," our future investigations should be directed toward exploring its potentialities as a cross-disciplinary bridge from treatment and teaching to clinical supervision.

CHAPTER V

COMPENDIUM OF PROBLEMS FOR THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION, EMPIRICAL STUDY AND EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

I. Introduction

This chapter comprises a collection of problems and hypotheses for research and proposals for practice in clinical supervision and programs of supervisor education. This introduction is intended to describe the format that will be employed and to explain some arbitrary conventions that have been invented for presenting the following material. This section also represents an opportunity to reflect upon the general character of the compendium and to explain the criteria employed for selecting its content.

1. The Format

The compendium consists of issues that have been broached in the writing above, in connection to the case materials and other examined data. In order for future researchers to be able to locate issues expediently, items are arranged alphabetically according to key terms which denote the basic concept(s) in question. For example, a collection of problems and hypotheses concerning incidental learning is introduced by the heading "Incidental Learning," which appears alphabetically among the "I's." After each such heading, related items are presented in order of generality, i.e., beginning with the most general problems and ending with the most specific hypotheses and questions. When the criterion "generality" is ambiguous, subsidiary questions are ordered arbitrarily under every heading. Under such circumstances, problems that go together are kept together and are arranged, when possible, in the order that we believe they should be broached in a developmental sequence of research.

When issues can be named *equally as well* by more than one key term, they are included at the first alphabetical possibility and subsequent references direct the reader to the entry under which they appear. For example, incidental learning is included under "L" in the following fashion: "Learning, Indidental. See "Incidental Learning.""

After each heading, there either appears a series of hypotheses, problems and recommendations or, if it is necessary, a short general description of the problematical area followed by specific hypotheses, etc. Some issues require such treatment because they are not completely communicable in the form of hypotheses and connections and relationships between related hypotheses occasionally require some general statement of a subsumptive problem in order to be clear. Except for preparations of this kind, hypotheses will *not* be accompanied by statements that defend them as foci for research or by descriptions of the conditions of need from which they arise because arguments of that *genre* have already been developed in the foregoing material.

2. *Hypotheses, Problems, Propositions and Recommendations*

In the first section of this dissertation, the intention was stated to use this writing, and the compendium particularly, as a means for mapping the terrain in supervision and in supervisor-education in terms of problems that exist and of research that would be profitable to conduct in the future. Many of the questions that have arisen from this investigation and many of the "findings" suggested by experience and by the analyses above are best to state as hypotheses if certain qualifications are kept in mind.

It is most important to note that whereas "hypothesis" is generally taken to mean "experimental hypothesis" in current research parlance, we do not intend that connotation presently. In accordance with traditional definitions, our use of the term is meant to connote any of the following meanings: a tentative assumption to serve as a basis for examining or testing its empirical or logical consequences; an interpretation adopted as a basis for action; or a tentative explanation of phenomena to serve as a temporary substitute for scientific proofs.

We do not mean to avoid stating experimental hypotheses but neither would it be consistent with our general purpose to be bound by the condition of offering only such hypotheses because many problems exist in the field that are not congenial to experimental formulations and because our own inability to envisage the experimental potentialities of certain problems might result in omission of questions that may be ripe for experimental research. Indeed, we are especially pleased to frame hypotheses experimentally whenever we can and have deliberately adopted the general technique of stating problems in hypothetical rather than interrogative form because of the greater likelihood that hypotheses will stimulate debate and will suggest action for research.

It is also important to note that the hypotheses included do represent interpretations that experience at Harvard-Lexington and in similar programs has suggested. In many instances conflicting hypotheses are offered and slight variations of the same basic hypothesis are presented not because of any implicit premium on proliferation, but rather because opposing interpretations and subtle differences existed or presently exist in our thinking. In such instances our intent is to draw stronger attention to specific inconsistencies than we might by simply leaving it for the reader to transpose our propositions as null hypotheses on his own initiative. In short, the hypotheses represent interpretations in which we tentatively believe unless opposing hypotheses (antitheses) are also included.

A third factor to note is that the following items are stated as briefly as possible, consistent with effective communication. Whereas the lengthiness of the writing above was necessary in order to develop arguments and interpretations, the compendium should be a wieldy document in terms of locating and understanding its contents. For this reason primarily, common methodological problems of research will not be explicated except under special circumstances. It is assumed, in this regard, that researchers will generally be alert to such problems, e.g., of sampling techniques, i.e., of determining sample size and appropriate statistical methods; of creating significant artifacts that confuse interpretations of data, e.g., in selection of items for questionnaires, interview procedures, and feedback instruments generally; of creating significant artifacts that affect the behavior and learning under investigation; of experimental control; of isolating behavioral variables and relating them to cognitive phenomena; of inferring cause-effect relationships among correlated phenomena; and, in general, of insuring that research yields valid findings and incorporates reliable tests.

In some respects, to consider every issue in relation to such problems would exceed our sophistication in research methodology, and, in any event, would represent a more lengthy and ambitious undertaking than would be realistic in this writing.

Fourth, it should be noted that no issue represented in the compendium has not been considered explicitly in the body of this dissertation, i.e., there is nothing new in the compendium of a substantive nature.

Finally, with regard to hypotheses, it should be noted that there is some likelihood that certain problems which existed and certain outcomes that arose did so because of the writer's effects upon the students at Harvard-Lexington. Many problems that have crystallized at Harvard-Lexington and in other programs in which we have participated have done so because of our participation. This fact raises the question of generalizability, viz., of whether the issues to be presented are really germane in the field. Our protections in this regard are threefold: first, our attention to the literature in supervision and in supervisor-education and our dialogues with other workers in the field have remained current and affirm that the issues in question are generally relevant; second, the system of constructs in supervision and supervisor-education that constituted the conceptual core of our work at Harvard-Lexington represents an influential approach in contemporary supervision and, as a proponent of the system, the writer occupies a place in the mainstream of apposite activity; and third, the question of whether the outcomes and interpretations considered are narrow results of the writer's own influence and behavior is largely determinable in reference to the case materials included herein and to the data that have been examined above. In other words, independent judgments on this factor are possible to make in reference to objective data.

With regard to recommendations, some courses of action proposed in the compendium derive from possibilities that occurred to us during the Harvard-Lexington program and subsequently in the course of this writing. As with many of the hypotheses offered, particularly those embodying problems that do not seem to be conducive to formal experimentation presently, the recommendations are offered for trial and for empirical investigation rather than as approaches that are necessarily "certain"or valid. The state of the field is such that expansion of current knowledge must depend on dialectical treatment and upon simple trial-and-error in many instances as well as upon rigorous experimentation. The compendium is basically intended to stimulate relevant inquiry, without concern for methodological considerations.

NOTE: In the following items, the terms "teacher(s)" and "supervisor(s)" are used interchangeably with "teaching students" and "supervision students" and are meant, in every case, to refer to teachers and supervisors as they were known to us as students and neophytes in the Harvard-Lexington Summer Program. It is important to keep this frame of reference in mind because, for example, certain hypotheses and propositions that may connote a pessimistic outlook will not necessarily hold at more advanced levels of professional training and sophistication.

II. Compendium of Problems

Abstract and Concrete Issues in Supervision See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers" and "Generalization and Specificity of Supervisory Issues."

Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers See, "Answers in Supervision; Depersonalization of Supervisory Issues; Generalization and Specificity of Supervisory Issues; Propositions From Clinical Supervision; Rewards in Supervision" and "Supervision of Team Teaching."

1. Hypothesis: Supervision is most likely to be accepted by teaching students if it begins in relationship to issues that supervisees feel are consequential, if its initial focus is upon developing teaching plans that the students find useful, and if classroom observation is not inaugurated until reasons for it exist, viz., reasons that the teacher shares and which have grown out of the initial planning (and other) activities.

2. Hypothesis: Teachers are more likely to accept (value) supervision that results in concrete assistance to them, e.g., in the formulation of specific teaching plans, than supervision that is focused primarily upon abstract issues, e.g., speculation regarding whether or not self-initiated inquiry was experienced by a majority of pupils in the context of an observed lesson.

3. Hypothesis: Supervision that focuses upon the development of strategies for future teaching is more likely to be acceptable to teachers than supervision that focuses primarily upon past events in teaching.

4. Hypothesis: Supervision that focuses principally upon patterns of teaching behavior, that analyzes such behavior but that stops short of developing operational strategies for modifying it is more likely to be rejected by teachers than supervision that culminates in such formulations.

5. Hypothesis: The popular corrolary of "constructive criticism," which suggests that criticisms should not be made unless the critic can proposé something better, carries over into educators' professional thinking and operates against teachers' acceptance of supervision which does not provide superior alternatives.

Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers (Continued.)

6. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to feel that their supervisors and instructors acquit themselves professionally by providing answers and tend to distrust the integrity and utility of supervision and instruction that fail to do so.

7. Hypothesis: Supervision that provides answers is more likely to be acceptable to teachers than supervision that culminates in questions.

8. Hypothesis: The functional stratifications (planning, teaching and observation) that have existed in the Harvard-Lexington practicum created conditions that militated against successful (acceptable) supervision, e.g., by precluding the possibility of developing lesson plans in analysis conferences which might represent concrete evidence of help received in supervision.

9. Recommendation: When the observation team has inaugurated a supervisory relationship with a teacher, that relationship should be extended to the teaching subteam to which he belongs and the observation team leader should have responsibility for directing all phases of that subteam's planning that impinge upon the area of work in which teaching is observed.

10. Hypothesis: Supervision is more likely to be accepted by teachers to whom a feeling of basic acceptance has been communicated by their supervisor than supervision in which such acceptance is not apparent to them.

11. Hypothesis: The acceptability of supervision will be aided when the supervisor demonstrates frequent attempts to understand the teacher's meanings (by asking for clarifications, etc.) and tells his supervisee explicitly that that is what motivates his behavior.

12. Hypothesis: Emotional and social rewards must supplement intrinsic professional rewards in order for most teachers to maintain incentives for supervision. In other words, supervisors must provide such rewards despite the commitment they may have to helping teachers to experience intrinsic professional rewards in conjunction with objective self-evaluation.

Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers (Continued.)

13. Hypothesis: Supervision in which behavioral patterns are recapitulated in connection to small increments of change toward desirable outcomes will be less abrasive, less likely to be rejected, and more rewarding to teachers and supervisors than supervision that recapitulates behavioral patterns without emphasis on small changes.

14. Hypothesis: Supervision that focuses upon relatively depersonalized professional problems, e.g., lesson planning, is more likely to be accepted by teachers than supervision that focuses principally upon patterns of teaching behavior.

15. Hypothesis: Supervision that deals with specific patterns of teaching behavior which have been derived from explicit, objective and comprehensive observational data is more likely to be acceptable to teachers than supervision that focuses principally upon behavioral patterns and deals primarily in descriptive and global generalizations.

16. Antithesis: Supervision that deals in global generalizations is more likely to be acceptable to teachers than supervision that is specific, detailed, and related to objective observational data (because more vulnerability and fewer avenues of escape are incorporated by the latter form).

17. Hypothesis: Supervision is more readily accepted by teachers when supervisors appear to have a stake in their success than when they do not.

18. Hypothesis: Supervisors appear to have a greater stake in the success of teaching if they have participated in formulating the teaching plans than if they have not.

19. Hypothesis: Supervisors' participation in the classroom is interpreted as a signification of their concern and investment in the lesson's success by the teacher. Moreover, it lessens social and professional status disparities between supervisors and teachers and provides supervisors with opportunities to acquit themselves by doing what is valued as "real work" from the teacher's frame of reference.

20. Problem: Study is required in connection to the problem of how, when teaching and supervision practicums are conjoined, supervision

students who do not have responsibilities for classroom teaching can be accepted as "members of the team" by teaching students who do.

21. Hypothesis: Simple solutions tend to result in supervision that is more acceptable to teachers than complex solutions do.

22. Hypothesis: Specific solutions make supervision more acceptable to teachers than general solutions do.

23. Antithesis: General solutions make supervision more acceptable to teachers than specific solutions do (when teachers are fearful or hostile toward supervision and feel trapped by specific proposals).

24. Hypothesis: The professional mores are such that if supervision were not required in teacher-supervisor education programs, left to the teaching students, it would not be invited often.

25. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to feel that supervision is less productive and represents less honest work than teaching, and to reject it on those grounds.

Achieving Supervisory Goals See, "Advice-Giving in Supervision; Common Errors in Supervision and Teaching" and "Initiation of Goals and Issues in Supervision."

26. Hypothesis: Recognition of behavioral patterns that require modification and commitment to work upon them are more likely to result when the teacher has extrapolated such patterns from empirical data than when the supervisor has.

27. Hypothesis: Teachers are more likely to succeed in modifying patterns of professional behavior that they have identified than patterns identified by supervisors, unless such patterns were discovered collaboratively.

28. Hypothesis: Teachers are more likely to succeed in implementing teaching strategies (e.g., lesson plans) that they have invented than

strategies invented by their supervisors unless such strategies have been invented collaboratively.

29. Hypothesis: Supervisors frequently fail to communicate effectively with teachers because they cite too few data to support their inferences. Whereas the connections between data are known to them and the significance of the data has been established by prior analysis, the teacher's unfamiliarity with the data and lack of conceptual rehearsal result in leaving points obscure to him that are obvious to his supervisors.

30. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to be inadvertently punitive by presenting an excess of data. Gratuitous data, i.e., data presented after a point has been made, can result in humiliations for the supervisee who feels infantilized by repetitions of the same material and embarrassed by them, particularly when the pattern being documented is one of weak teaching behavior.

31. Hypothesis: Recognition of one's behavioral patterns does not imply understanding of their professional significance nor motivation to change.

32. Hypothesis: Supervision must go beyond identifying patterns if it hopes to change them. It must, for example, be continued and reinforcements must be applied systematically to appropriate increments of change in teaching behavior.

33. Hypothesis: The intensity of supervisors' reactions can have the effect of reinforcing teaching behaviors they mean to extinguish, especially when the supervisee is ambivalent or antagonistic toward supervision.

34. Hypothesis: Once, by virtue of having been reinforced in supervision, a pattern of behavior is learned stereotypically, it will be especially refractory to subsequent attempts to modify it.

35. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching often fail to produce their intended effects when, for one reason or another, their substantive content, their methods or their explicit rationales lack authenticity for the supervisee or the pupil.

Achieving Supervisory Goals (Continued.)

36. Hypothesis: The most common causes of unauthenticity in supervision and teaching are that issues treated are remote from the learner's experience historically (by virtue of time), physically (by virtue of space), logically (by virtue of abstractness), intellectually (by seeming too complex or too simple to represent known realities) and emotionally (by virtue of symbolic loadings against which the learner must defend himself).

37. Hypothesis: Supervision seems to have failed when the issues introduced were too historically remote to be remembered, too abstract to be recognized, or too emotionally loaded to be treatable directly.

38. Recommendation: Set "authenticity" as an explicit problem for teaching and supervision; enlist counselors to perform phenomenological interviews from which, empirically, the problem of unauthenticity can be documented in detail.

39. Hypothesis: Predictive and interpretive accuracy in supervision is directly correlated with the number of interpretive constructs available to the supervisor.

40. Problem: Under what conditions is it justifiable to devote supervisory time to academic exploration of theoretical issues?

41. Hypothesis: Supervision in many subject areas helps to avoid rote applications (i.e., misapplications) of certain teaching behaviors across the board.

42. Problem: If speculation about teachers' feelings, etc., gives rise to projection and consequent distortions, is such speculation ever appropriate and, if so, under what conditions and with what qualifications?

43. Problem: Is it clinically realistic and ethically correct for supervisors to aim for attitudinal changes among teachers or should they be bound to work within the systems of values and motives they encounter from individual to individual?

44. Hypothesis: Besides making teaching students and supervisors more

Achieving Supervisory Goals (Continued.)

aware of the significance of pupil behavior generally, the practice of specifying behavioral outcomes in advance is useful in supervision because to do so establishes a common set of expectations and a common framework for supervision.

45. Hypothesis: Whereas termination is sometimes the best strategy to employ when seemingly insurmountable difficulties arise in a supervision conference, its own effects are problematical and require study: termination can imply rejection, hostility, alienation, unconcern, or a lack of sympathy for the supervisee.

46. Hypothesis: Supervisors generally feel that supervision has been successful when their supervisees have taken their advice and have modified their behavior accordingly.

47. Hypothesis: Students and instructors in clinical supervision are better at analyzing teaching than at modifying it.

48. Hypothesis: Whereas global and charitable characterizations of teaching may fail to teach much about teaching, they may provide necessary emotional income at critical moments in supervision.

49. Hypothesis: Strong teachers experience more profit from supervision than weak ones.

50. Hypothesis: Study and practice of clinical supervision have generally failed to create basic changes among salient patterns of its students' behavior.

Advice-Giving in Supervision See, "Achieving Supervisory Goals; Defensiveness; Dependencies in Supervision; Special Conventions in Supervision" and "Supervisors' Needs."

51. Hypothesis: The supervisory practice of giving advice promotes dependencies upon the supervisor.

52. Hypothesis: A cultural bias favors asking and giving advice. It

is therefore necessary to institute special conventions to govern supervisory relationships in that regard.

53. Research: On the basis of empirical observations, develop descriptive categories of teachers' behavior in relation to requesting and responding to advice from supervisors. If teachers can be categorized in this regard, experimental research might discover whether dependencies on professional advisors can be encapsulated and modified, i.e., separated off from general attitudes about and needs for advice and supplanted by new preferences for other supervisory modes, e.g., analysis.

54. Hypothesis: The sense of responsibility for one's own destiny is dulled by habitual seeking and following of advice.

55. Hypothesis: Advice-giving represents one characteristic of authoritarian supervision.

56. Proposition: Advice-giving is poor supervisory practice, given that supervisors do not have ideal solutions or valid answers for most professional problems.

57. Hypothesis: Supervisees are not as likely to understand ideas embedded in supervisors' advice as they are their own ideas.

58. Hypothesis: Assumptions that are implicit in the supervisors' thinking are not likely to be shared by their supervisees. Consequently, advice can be misconstrued.

59. Proposition: It is poor practice for supervisors to give advice (as a general supervisory mode) because the likelihood is greater that supervisees will misunderstand or distort it than it is that they would fail in implementing strategies that they devised themselves (with or without supervisory assistance).

60. Hypothesis: The supervisory practice of giving advice tends to emphasize status disparities between teachers and supervisors.

Advice-Giving in Supervision (Continued.)

61. Hypothesis: Teachers are likely to act out hostility toward supervision by subverting advice given by supervisors.

Answers in Supervision See, "Acceptability of supervision to Teachers; Dependencies in Supervision; Questions and Answers in Supervision and Teaching" and "Role-Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching."

62. Hypothesis: Teaching students generally feel that it is not a justifiable supervisory practice to cite shortcomings in teaching or even to draw attention to them inductively unless supervisors are prepared to specify more effective alternatives.

63. Hypothesis: Some teaching and supervision students are reluctant to act until they have "answers." Others typically utilize action as a means for discovering answers.

Anxiety See, "Emotional Determinants in Supervision" and "Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision."

64. Hypothesis: Unless it is of unmanageable proportions, it is best for anxiety to be brought to the surface in supervision so that it can be examined and treated explicitly.

65. Hypothesis: When anxiety remains unadmitted and implicit, energies spent in other supervisory issues may, in effect, have been wasted in treating false issues.

66. Hypothesis: To be able to attribute weaknesses in teaching to anxiety (to "being nervous") is one rationalization that provides means of face-saving to many supervisees. As such it is sometimes appropriate to deliberately allow if the need to avoid loss of face is especially urgent and acute for the supervisee.

67. Hypothesis: Anxiety is sometimes the supervisee's major source of anxiety; i.e., they implicitly are afraid of being afraid and the anxiety they experience tends, itself, to induce further anxiety. For such teachers, the hypothesis above will not hold because, in effect, loss of face (damage to self-concept) is most likely to be associated

Anxiety (Continued.)

with recognition of anxiety.

68. Hypothesis: Because they arise from unknown sources, being merely elicited by the supervisory situation, many anxieties must continue to exist unassuaged in supervision. Only psychotherapy, among current practices, is equipped to discover etiological factors and to treat anxiety symptoms at their sources.

69. Proposition: One appropriate function for supervisors is to mediate reality for supervisees in the sense of helping to identify what real factors exist to exacerbate anxiety as distinct from what anxieties emanate from archaic sources. The point is to make supervisees more comfortable in admitting anxiety that has basis in the reality situation.

70. Hypothesis: Observation of severe professional inadequacies excites feelings of anxiety and guilt among observers.

Assimilability of Supervisory Issues See, "Achieving Supervisory Goals."

71. Problem: Systematic and reliable means do not exist in current clinical supervision for judging the assimilability of supervisory issues.

Autonomy and Supervision See, "Achieving Supervisory Goals."

72. Proposition: It is more consistent with the goal of developing professional autonomy based upon objective self-evaluation, self-initiated inquiry, and other process goals, and with the objective to convey a feeling of basic acceptance, for supervisors generally to work with teachers toward developing professional outcomes, roles, behaviors, and learnings that the teachers want than those that the supervisor might value.

73. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to assume that autonomy, i.e., freedom to operate in teaching teams in which decision-making prerogatives at the policy level are vested, is equivalent to carte blanche in connection to all aspects of their participation as students.

Autonomy and Supervision (Continued.)

74. Hypothesis: Students tend to test the existence of autonomy by perpetrating behaviors they suspect will exceed limits of the faculty's tolerance, especially by evading certain responsibilities.

75. Hypothesis: Students tend to confuse intellectual freedom with organizational controls, e.g., required attendance in seminars and practicums, which seem to them to be in conflict.

76. Hypothesis: Students tend to interpret faculty members' introductions of ideas, problems and substantive information as infringements upon their own freedom; i.e., they feel put under special pressure to accept the faculty's thinking.

77. Problem: What measures can be taken to convince students who value intellectual autonomy that intellectual contributions by their instructors do not constitute infringements upon that autonomy?

Beginning the Supervision Conference See, "Initiation of Goals and Issues in Supervision" and "Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision."

78. Problem: Who should begin the supervision conference?

79. Problem: When the supervisor(s) begins a conference, is it generally better to deal first with positive or negative (strong or weak, "plus" or "minus") patterns of teaching?

80. Hypothesis: To begin a supervision conference by citing weaknesses in the teaching will evoke latent defensiveness which will operate against all supervisory perceptions even those, subsequently, of strengths.

81. Hypothesis: To begin a supervision conference by establishing the strengths of teaching often leaves supervisees in a state of suspense, viz., as they have put it, of "being set up for the punch."

82. Antithesis: To begin a supervision conference by establishing the strengths of teaching creates a reservoir of confidence, satisfaction and good will that enables the supervisee to tolerate demonstrations of

weaknesses more resiliently than he might be able to do otherwise.

83. Hypothesis: First impressions have a special enduring significance that colors subsequent impressions that teachers and supervisors have of one another.

84. Hypothesis: Supervision students generally create openings, in supervision conferences, that lack explicit structure. Consequently, energies that might have been directed toward prosecuting well defined issues are often dissipated in attempts to resolve procedural and conceptual ambiguities and to create intelligible structure.

85. Proposition: The best way to assess a supervisee's needs at any given conference is to structure the supervisory dialogue so that he does most of the talking in the initial phase.

Biases in Observation and Supervision See, "Blind Analysis; Classroom Observation" and "Common Errors in Supervision and Teaching."

86. Hypothesis: Students tend to project their own cognitive habits onto other people's cognitive behavior.

87. Hypothesis: Teachers and supervisors tend to project cognitive and affective interpretations upon learners' behavior and, in this manner, tend to confuse inferences with perceptions.

88. Hypothesis: Observers tend to project their inner temperamental conditions upon their observations of classroom teaching, i.e., the observer's mood affects his "perceptions" of classroom phenomena.

89. Hypothesis: The existence of *a priori* categories and strategies for supervision, tends to make supervision students unresponsive to needs, concepts, questions and issues that supervisees introduce spontaneously in supervision conferences.

90. Hypothesis: To identify patterns early in observation and to proceed to collect data in their regard has the potential disadvantage of

Biases in Observation and Supervision (Continued.)

creating "tunnel vision" thereafter and the potential advantage of making observational recording more efficient and wieldy.

91. Hypothesis: In situations where supervisors speculate about the supervisee's feelings, attitudes, emotions, etc., chances of projection and consequent misinterpretations of behavior, formulation of invalid strategies, perceptual distortions, etc., are greatest.

92. Hypothesis: Psychological "transference" influences observers' perceptions of classroom teaching, i.e., instead of simply perceiving objective realities, observers' perceptions are colored by feelings that originated in past relationships and which are evoked in present ones.

93. Hypothesis: Supervisors' involvement in lesson planning and other involvements that give them vested interests in successful teaching outcomes operate against objective observations and objective analyses in supervision: clinical distance is forfeited.

94. Proposition: Supervisors should not become involved actively in the teaching they observe because their objectivity will consequently be reduced (i.e., in regard to their products rather than to the teachers').

95. Hypothesis: The physical differences between observers' and the teacher's vantage points enrich the data beyond any degree of comprehensiveness it might have achieved in relation to only the teacher's observations.

96. Antithesis: Physical distance generates distorted views by observers of the teaching; it prevents them from procuring significant data.

97. Hypothesis: Once students have formulated an interpretation of observational data, they find it difficult to entertain alternate interpretations, especially if they comprise qualitative reversals.

98. Hypothesis: Teaching and supervision students tend to believe

initially that whether a lesson is judged to be good or bad depends primarily upon the predisposition and rhetorical skills of the observation team leader.

99. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students tend to attach moral implications to technical weaknesses and to psychological issues that interfere in technical behavior.

100. Hypothesis: The filtration of psychological (clinical) terminology into supervision operates to disguise stigmas that are implicitly attached to professional inadequacies: implicitly, weaknesses are bad.

101. Hypothesis: Students tend to replace old prejudices with new ones rather than with unprejudicial, intellectual habits.

102. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to record more numerous observations of teachers' behavior than of pupils'.

103. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to record more data in connection to weak patterns of teaching than to strong ones.

104. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to record simple patterns of strengths and weaknesses in teaching rather than complex behavioral patterns that are thought, simultaneously, to incorporate both virtues and deficiencies.

105. Hypothesis: Most supervision and teaching students do not perceive subtle changes in teaching behavior as neophyte observers. They tend toward global characterizations of behavior and must be taught to readjust their perspectives and indices of comparison.

106. Hypothesis: Supervisors' appraisals of teaching and of the success of supervision will be directly correlated with the degree to which evidence suggests that the teacher values their supervision.

107. Hypothesis: A disadvantage of the practice of inviting observers to express their strong feelings about a teaching performance before the data have been reviewed, is that to do so generates consensual validation

of feelings that might otherwise have been tentative and can create biases in the subsequent analysis.

108. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to operate with more technical abandon in supervisory relationships with supervisees that they like and who seem receptive to supervision than with those who seem refractory.

109. Hypothesis: It is useful to record one's own impressions during classroom observation as well as the objective data, (1) so as not to lose sight of them and (2) to avoid their subtle infiltration into the data.

110. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to discover patterns in teaching that have been given as examples by their instructors more often than other patterns of teaching behavior.

111. Problem: The general problem of how to make reconstruction of behavior less spotty and less subject to distortion requires study. We particularly recommend exploration of the use of kinescope tapes in clinical supervision.

Blind Analysis See, "Biases in Observation and Supervision."

112. Hypothesis: To observe teaching without any prior knowledge about the teacher or about his plans, i.e., to engage in blind analysis, has the advantage of minimizing the likelihood that observers will commence observation with certain prejudices that have been generated by prior information. E.g., to know that a teacher has demonstrated certain weaknesses in the past is likely to sensitize observers, especially to evidence of those weaknesses.

113. Antithesis: Blind analysis represents poor supervisory practice because the less information that is known about a teacher, the more likely that supervisors will misunderstand or distort his meanings, misconstrue his behavior, and tend to project their own values, ideas, etc., onto their observations of his teaching.

114. Hypothesis: Exclusion of teachers from planning sessions gives rise to guessing by the supervisors in relation to teachers' intent,

6

rationales, and any elements of the lesson plans that are obscure. As such, it leads to time-consuming and sometimes wasteful speculation and represents poor practice, therefore.

115. Antithesis: The exclusion of teaching students from planning sessions enables the supervisors to speak candidly about the plans and to define issues that are likely to arise in the observed teaching; as such, it represents good practice.

116. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to believe that supervision that is committed to dealing with the teacher's issues and to taking its leads from the teacher, does not require extensive planning (i.e., what was called "strategy" at Harvard-Lexington).

117. Hypothesis: Because blind analyses ignore teachers' intent, they generally give rise to supervision that is abrasive.

Charismatic Teaching See, "Dependencies in Supervision; Emotional Determinants in Supervision" and "Incidental Learning."

118. Proposition: Charismatic teaching is most likely to result in incidental learnings about the teacher and, insofar as such learning distracts from the substantive content of instruction, constitutes poor practice. The same proposition applies to supervisory relationships.

119. Hypothesis: Rhetorical and inspirational teaching are generally charismatic, i.e., they attract attention to the instructor himself and generate incidental learnings about him.

120. Antithesis and Counter-proposition: Charismatic teaching (and supervision) represents good practice first, because it can serve as an inspirational source in professional learning and second, because it generates psychological foci that can serve as useful distractions when the intensity of substantive inquiry threatens to create "saturation" and avoidance.

121. Hypothesis: Charismatic teaching tends to generate social motives

for learning (i.e., extrinsic motives) or social inhibitions against learning. In either case, motivations for learning are more prominently anchored in the students' feelings about their instructor than when teaching is not charismatic. The same hypothesis applies to supervisory relationships.

122. Hypothesis: Charismatic teaching promotes greater dependency upon the instructor for rewards, directions, incentives and evaluation than non-charismatic teaching. The same hypothesis applies to supervisory relationships.

123. Antithesis: Dependencies associated with charismatic supervision make teachers more susceptible to "votes of confidence" by their supervisors than non-charismatic supervision and, for that reason, can provide an initial basis from which teachers may develop more numerous sources of self-confidence.

124. Hypothesis: Charismatic teaching often incorporates statements at high levels of generality which, because they are global, are relatively invulnerable to criticism; statements in the first person and self-references; references to unusual and "taboo" topics, e.g., sexual references; profanities; frequent use of metaphors and similies; esoteric terminology; implied expertise; flattery to the audience; appeals to the audience's intelligence or good judgment; exhortations; excessively dramatic examples; and statements concerning the truth: "the truth of the matter; as a matter of fact; the true facts; as you well know."

125. Hypothesis: When students' learning incorporates tendencies to imitate, emulate or identify with their instructor, superfluous behaviors are likely to be adopted as well as relevant ones, particularly when teaching is charismatic. The same hypothesis applies to supervision.

126. Problem: From analyses of teaching behavior, develop empirical models of charismatic teaching that identify common elements of such teaching. Also, in conjunction with feedback from learners, determine which learnings were associated with which elements of teaching behavior or, generally, what learnings occurred, in order to authenticate the existence of charismatic teaching as a phenomenon and to develop more specific information about its advantages and disadvantages to learners.

Charismatic Teaching (Continued.)

127. Recommendation: Develop empirical studies of charismatic phenomena; authenticate charismatic teaching and supervision as significant issues. Develop taxonomies of charismatic behavior based upon students' reported impressions (learnings) and independent judgments.

Classroom Observation See, "Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision."

128. Hypothesis: Whether the presence of observers in the classroom and their practice of note-taking disturbs or inhibits the pupils depends almost entirely on how it affects the teacher. In other words, teachers' feelings and attitudes toward observation are communicated directly or indirectly to the pupils.

129. Hypothesis: Notetaking by observers disturbs teachers and pupils.

130. Antithesis: Notetaking by observers does not disturb teachers or pupils when teachers understand the rationale for collecting data and that notes do not consist simply of "bad things."

131. Hypothesis: The presence of observers creates artifacts that tend to invalidate observations of teaching.

132. Antithesis: The presence of observers has the effect of sharpening weak patterns of teaching behavior and, for that reason, represents an analytical advantage in that data are more graphic than they might ordinarily be.

Client-Centered Supervision

133. Problem: Whereas the rationales for non-directive counseling are presented fully by its authors, principles have not been invented to indicate appropriate foci for non-directive action in supervision.

134. Problem: In their early employment of the construct, supervision and teaching students tend to associate non-directiveness with passivity: non-intervention, non-participation, non-initiation, etc.

Client-Centered Supervision (Continued.)

135. Problem: Develop methods for teaching non-directive supervision.

Common Errors in Supervision

136. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to confront supervisees with more than they can assimilate: too many issues; issues that are too complex, abstract, ambiguous, remote or obscure.

137. Hypothesis: Supervision students frequently succumb to the temptation of introducing all of the patterns they have extrapolated from the data and consequently saturate the supervision conference with unassimilable issues.

138. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to move away from patterns they have cited before establishing their educational (professional) significance or formulating strategies in their connection.

139. Hypothesis: In reference to negative patterns, this practice can produce the incidental learning that negative patterns are negative simply because they oppose the supervisor's values.

140. Hypothesis: Supervisors are generally not competent to judge the existence, degree or significance of anxiety in teachers. Overestimations and failures to recognize anxiety at all are common in supervision.

141. Hypothesis: Excessive language often leads to interpretive distortions and, consequently, to strategic mistakes.

142. Recommendation: Expressive moderation should be taught in conjunction with training in communication skills and verbal precision.

143. Hypothesis: A common problem in supervision is that teachers have employed basically sound educational principles but have implemented them incorrectly, have misconstrued their essential meaning, or have applied them under inappropriate conditions.

Common Errors in Supervision (Continued.)

144. Hypothesis: When teachers have misapplied basically sound educational principles, supervision is often frustrated because the supervisors are unable to perceive and/or to communicate the crucial distinctions. The notion that sound rationales can be at cross-purposes under certain circumstancss is not generally recognized by teachers and, consequently, they perceive inconsistencies in supervision which sometimes make it seem capricious. I.e., what is rewarded on one occasion is disapproved on another.

145. Hypothesis: A common error among supervision students is to fail to cite relevant data in supervision conferences when it is not readily available to them. Rather than pausing to search through their observation notes for the required material, they feel awkward and uncomfortable about the silences that would accompany such searches and tend to believe that they will seem incompetent or unprepared to supervisees if they do not keep up a steady stream of dialogue.

146. Hypothesis: While it might tend to make supervisees uncomfortable when supervisors interrupt the supervisory dialogue to search for material in their observation notes, it generally is experienced as a flattery when the supervisor is able to produce verbatim quotations of the teacher's and the pupils' conversation.

147. Hypothesis: A common error in supervision occurs when supervisors, having already developed certain inferences from their observational data, cite too few data to enable the supervisee to see the roots and justifications for the inferences in question.

148. Hypothesis: A common error in supervision occurs when supervisors, having already analyzed their observation data, present data that "go together" in relation to certain interpretations (i.e., an abundance of such data) but in relation to which the supervisee is unable to perceive the connections that are known to the supervisor.

149. Proposition: Whereas it is sometines best to present data and to lead supervisees inductively to interpretations of the data, at other times it is best to specify the interpretation first and then to cite the supporting data. The question of what foctors determine which approach will be most useful, requires study.

Common Errors in Supervision (Continued.)

150. Hypothesis: Neophyte supervisors tend to believe that to be "supervising," they must be able to identify some weaknesses in the observed teaching.

Common Untested Assumptions in Supervision and Teaching

151. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to assume that when teaching seems basically good to them it will also seem to have been that way to the teacher.

152. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students tend to believe that teaching practices are acceptable if the pupils do not give evidence of rejecting them, e.g., sarcasm, rigid discipline, and infantilization of learners.

153. Hypothesis: Many teaching students assumed that the following conditions always exist together: inquiry, questions, non-directiveness, child-centeredness, inductive reasoning, democratic teaching; and direction-giving, autocratic teaching, teacher-centeredness.

154. Recommendation: The phenomena cited above were generally so merged with one another and indistinct in the students' minds, that their essential characteristics, their significance and their interrelationships should be studied explicitly in future programs.

155. Hypothesis: Teaching students assume that teaching for inquiry incorporates many questions and tend to award priorities to questions *qua* questions without much concern for their quality or significance or specific character.

156. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to defend "rights of privacy" implicity as a corrolary of "academic freedom." They assume the existence of the former when they have been assured in regard to the latter. It follows that when observers violate those (ostensible) rights, they must acquit themselves by helpfulness of a special order.

Conflicts in Supervision See, "Consistencies and Inconsistencies in Supervision and Supervisor Education."

157. Problem: How do students experience manifest differences between members of the faculty; how do teachers experience differences among supervisors?

158. Hypothesis: It is threatening for supervisees to encounter differences in opinion (interpretation, outlook, etc.) among their supervisors.

159. Hypothesis: Differences between faculty members are threatening to teaching and supervision students because of implicit fears that conceptual differences are associated with hostilities and that their own interests cannot be protected by a faculty comprising internal conflicts.

160. Hypothesis: Obvious differences of opinion, etc., between members of the faculty tend to heighten the students' anxiety. Rather than being welcome and resulting in feelings of greater freedom in professional decision-making, the existence of differences tends to confuse and to threaten the students.

161. Recommendation: Address "differences" explicitly in early meetings with the students (orientation period).

162. Hypothesis: Class conflict, resembling that between labor and management, represents a prominent element in the professional subculture of teaching and supervision.

163. Hypothesis: Status conflicts in supervision are more amenable to successful treatment and resolution if they are overt and institutionalized than if they are covert and implicit.

164. Hypothesis: Whereas faculties of practicums in clinical supervision tend to want teaching students to learn different concepts and behaviors from those with which they came already equipped, by and large the teaching students want rather to improve already existing strengths and to eliminate weaknesses they discover but resist fundamental changes in their professional thinking and values.

Conflicts in Supervision (Continued.)

165. Problem: Members of the practicum faculty are often in conflict between disclaiming the existence of areas of incompetency among the students, for social reasons, and admitting the existence of such areas as a point of departure for special instructional emphasis.

166. Hypothesis: Fewer rifts would develop between supervision and teaching students if all activities in the practicum were under the direction of a single leader.

167. Recommendation: Set "What course(s) should be taken when supervisors find themselves in basic opposition to their supervisees' values and self-determined objectives?" as a problem for study in future programs.

168. Recommendation: Set "What course(s) should te taken when supervisors find themselves feeling hostile toward their supervisees"? as a problem for study in future programs.

Conformity as a Factor in Supervision See,"Group Supervision" and "Supervision of Team Teaching."

169. Hypothesis: Stigmas are frequently attached to differences in treatment and behavior among students in the practicum. To be "different" seems somehow equivalent to being "inferior." Conformity has strong implicit premiums.

170. Hypothesis: Withdrawal from supervision by either the supervisors or the supervisee is generally stigmatized by other students, i.e., the supervisee loses face, whether or not he initiated the withdrawal.

Consistencies and Inconsistencies in Supervision and Supervisor Education See, "Conflicts in Supervision" and "Role-Play in Supervision."

171. Hypothesis: Behavioral consistencies are likely to appear in the roles of supervisor and supervisee for any given individual, e.g., a person who seeks advice as a supervisee is likely to give advice as a supervisor; one who manifests excessive dependency as a supervisee is likely to encourage excessive dependency as a supervisor; a teacher

who experiences heightened anxiety under supervision, is likely to feel anxious in a supervisory role.

172. Hypothesis: Some students tend to reverse roles in supervision in the sense that whereas their teaching behavior embodies distinct role characteristics for teacher and pupils, as supervisees they tend to behave as pupils and to expect that their relationships to their supervisors are somehow equivalent to their pupils' relationships to themselves.

173. Hypothesis: Students who tend to employ ritualistic practices in classroom teaching manifest the same tendency in supervisory roles.

174. Hypothesis: Students who tend to infantilize their pupils in classroom teaching tend to create similar effects in supervisory roles.

175. Hypothesis: Students whose teaching is characterized by cooperative decision-making and working toward shared explicit goals, tend to conduct supervision in a similar manner.

176. Hypothesis: A major source of cynicism among supervisees is apparent inconsistency between values, theories and practices which their supervisors espouse in supervision and behaviors of their own (i.e., the supervisors') which fail to comprise the features in question.

177. Hypothesis: A weak point in supervision that places a premium upon providing rationales and explicating reasons for professional strategies consists of discrepancies between the espoused premium and the supervisors' tendencies to leave their own rationales implicit and unexplained. Such discrepancies are especially noted by supervisees and tend to heighten their cynicism in relation to supervision.

178. Hypothesis: Because they associate autonomy with privacy, teaching students often consider observation, which infringes on rights of privacy, to be inconsistent with their professional autonomy.

179. Hypothesis: One index of teaching and supervision students' learning in the area of behavioral analysis and interpretation of

Consistencies and Inconsistencies in Supervision and Supervisor Education (Continued.)

teaching behavior is the frequency with which they cite valid inconsistencies between their instructors' theoretical propositions and their teaching behavior (supervisory behavior, leadership behavior, etc.).

180. Problem: Some systematic means should be adopted for keeping track of instances in which the faculty's behavior comprises inconsistencies between theory and practice. Data of this kind could serve as a basis for avoiding or modifying such behavior, as a source of information concerning possible relationships between such behavior and the students' morale, and, in the latter connection, as one means for making students' behavior more generally intelligible.

Contracts in Supervision

See, "Special Conventions in Supervision."

181. Hypothesis: Considerable time is expended in supervisory relationships in developing, implicitly, the conventions that will regulate professional intercourse, particularly in contrast to practices in other disciplines in which participants work from a set of shared conventions which operate as an implicit contract from the outset.

182. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend not to develop explicit contracts with their supervisees.

183. Hypothesis: Supervision will proceed more successfully if the "rules of the game" are explicated at the outset and if some contract is established explicitly than if these conditions are absent.

Counseling and Supervision

See, "Non-Directive Supervision" and "Supervisory Analogues."

184. Problem: In supervision that aims to affect behavioral modifications in teachers, it is necessary for supervisors to have certain competencies for diagnosing, understanding, and shaping human behavior, in addition to technical competencies in teaching, e.g., knowledge of content and methods, curriculum organization, professional issues, etc. A problem, consequently, which is an especially difficult one because

Counseling and Supervision (Continued.)

conceptualizations of the kind of behaviors and the psychological extent (depth) in reference to which changes should be undertaken are ambiguous in clinical supervision, is that of training supervisors to be more competent in these terms. The two principal questions are (1) what the content of such training should be and (2) what methods such training should employ.

185. Recommendations: Psychological counselors should be employed in supervisor education and in research and development in supervision to develop findings and to broaden supervisors' theoretical and professional knowledge in relation to:

a. Treatment analogues; goals of treatment and of supervision; contracts in treatment and in supervision; ethical dimensions of treatment and of supervision; relationships between means and ends in treatment and supervision.

b. Development of supervisory paradigms modeled after treatment approaches in counseling and stemming from common conceptual systems of personality and behavior.

c. Theories of anxiety. Supervision students should be taught about anxiety in reference to its affects upon behavior; its common symptoms; measures for treating acute anxiety in supervision; common catalysts of anxiety in supervision and teaching; role anxieties. Emphasis should be placed on recognition and treatment of anxiety and upon its importance as a behavioral determinant rather than upon etiological considerations, theories of neurosis, etc.

d. Recognition of emotional determinants generally. Supervisors should learn skills of identifying and interpreting emotional factors that are expressed indirectly in professional behavior; to be able to "read" supervisory and teaching behavior in a manner that alerts them to the existence of emotional factors of which knowledge enhances the intelligibility of behavior and, consequently, may indicate what undertakings and approaches are likely to be useful.

e. Self-theories and theories of vocational development. The interface between self and work and the character of one as an expression of the other; implications of supervision for "self" and for professional development.

f. Skills of self-analysis and techniques for training teachers to such skills.

g. Skills of managing and monitoring one's own behavior in relation to supervisory relationships and in the supervisory situation from moment to moment.

h. Structures of cognitive behavior. Supervisors should study models and research relating to the logic of intelligence and should understand the general character of contemporary theories of such development, e.g., by Piaget.

i. Skills for eliciting phenomenological feedback and of developing responsive supervisory strategies.

186. Recommendation: Counselors should be available to supervisors and teachers for such purposes as analyzing feelings of frustration that develop in their professional relationships and of receiving specialized assistance for working through feelings that operate a against successful professional learning and development.

187. Problem: Is it ethical to employ counseling techniques for supervisory ends?

188. Proposition: Given the absence of counseling skills as an emphasis in their training and the professional-ethical ambiguities surrounding the question of counseling by supervisors, bona fide psychological counselors should be made available to teaching students to help them to deal with issues unearthed by supervisory analysis.

189. Problem: The employment of counseling personnel to conduct interviews might serve multiple purposes: (1) to develop phenomenological data which illustrate students' goals, expectations, and experiences in programs of supervision and teacher education; (2) to employ such data for building models of professional learning (professional development) based on empirical knowledge; (3) to employ such data to test whether development as educational supervisors proceeds according to genetic sequences such that modal, phase-specific tasks, problems, and developmental crises exist for supervision students generally; and (4) to help teaching and supervision students to deal constructively with the new information about themselves, their professional competencies, their professional outlooks, their implicit assumptions, etc., that are set into relief by the practicum experience

and which, we hypothesize, are generally not assimilated without affective concomitants that make assimilation and change difficult and, occasionally, impossible.

Cycles of Supervision See, "Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums" and "Supervisory Mystique."

190. Hypothesis: Teaching students generally prefer informal analysis (i.e., supervision that is not staged according to the five-part cycle employed at Harvard-Lexington) over formal cycles of supervision.

191. Hypothesis: Teaching students' expressed preference for supervision performed catch-as-catch-can, rather than in formal cycles, reflects an actual preference to avoid supervision and supervision-like activities altogether.

192. Hypothesis: Supervisory analyses that convene too quickly for the supervisee to have had an opportunity to collect his thoughts on the observed teaching, tend to be frustrating for that reason.

193. Recommendation: Teachers should have their own opportunity to review their memories of the observed lesson and to formulate their own strategies of analysis before supervision conferences just as the supervisors do.

194. Proposition: It is better practice to expose inadequacies of teaching plans beforehand, i.e., at a time when the teacher can be protected from perpetrating errors in his teaching, than afterwards, because, in the latter case, the teacher is apt to resent the supervisor's failure to protect him and will consequently reject supervision.

195. Counter-proposition: It is better to deal with inadequacies in planning after they have culminated in inadequate teaching (1) because the teaching comprises persuasive data that attest to the planning deficiencies which, had they been cited without supporting data, might have seemed simply to reflect the supervisors' biases; (2) as a means for protecting against the operation of arbitrary supervisory biases at the planning stage; (3) as a dramatic means of demonstrating

qualitative relationships between planning and teaching; and (4) because, in the former case, the teacher's strategies are likely to be undermined and to result in an inability to break old sets and reformulate teaching in time to be successful at it.

196. Proposition: Observation should not be undertaken until reasons for it have been developed with (by) the teacher.

197. Problem: Under what circumstances are didactic interludes appropriate in supervision conferences?

198. Problem: Under what circumstances should meetings of the observation team be devoted to academic pursuits?

Defensiveness See, "Advice-Giving in Supervision; Dependencies in Supervision; Resistance to Supervision" and "Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision."

199. Hypothesis: Although defensive behavior may be said to arise and to assume its character from the personality of the individual by whom it is being manifested, it is generally true that some object or event in the environment acts as a stimulus to evoke such behavior and/or for it to center upon. We propose that defensive behavior is reactive and responsive as well as endogenous and that the environment as constituted by the supervisor can be regulated to evoke greater and lesser degrees of defensive behavior.

200. Problem: Study teachers' and supervisors' behavior in supervision to develop, empirically, a taxonomy of defensive behaviors (by super-

visors) that seem to stimulate or aggravate defensiveness. By compiling data on these phenomena, we suspect that future supervisors could be better prepared to recognize and to understand the likely significance of defensiveness among teachers and could become more alert, through self-monitoring, to characteristics of their own behavior that were likely to become contributory.

201. Antithesis: Defensiveness is predominently a matter of psychological predisposition: given a predisposition to be defensive (or not to be defensive) what the supervisor does, within certain very broad limits, is unlikely to affect the situation in this regard. Even when the supervisor's behavior is innocuous (by some objective standard), for example, the supervisee who feels threatened will act defensively.

202. Problem: One problem subsumed by the general question of causal relationships between supervisory behavior and manifest defensiveness relates to the existence of significant relationships between withdrawal behaviors by teachers and supervisory behavior. More empirical information is required in this connection and in connection to relationships between supervisory withdrawal and subsequent behavior by teachers.

203. Hypothesis: One common mode of defense in supervision is for teachers to be self-deprecating. Their implicit strategy seems to be to devalue their own performance before the supervisor is able to do so.

204. Hypothesis: One common mode of defense in supervision is for teachers to agree with everything the supervisor says.

205. Hypothesis: One common mode of defense in supervision is to ask the supervisor for value judgments, advice and strategies for teaching. When appeals for advice and assistance are basically defensive, subsequent teaching often subverts the supervisor's strategies and teachers lay the blame for failures on their supervisors.

206. Hypothesis: A common defense in supervision is represented when teachers ask a great many questions. Their questions, in effect, constitute digressions which disable the supervisor from prosecuting critical issues.

Defensiveness (Continued.)

207. Hypothesis: Perhaps the most common defense in supervision is for teachers to allege first, the observations of their teaching have been invalid because of stresses imposed upon the pupils and upon themselves by the presence of observers, and second, to allege that the supervisor does not understand the true significance of the observed teaching because he does not know the pupils and has not observed the series of lessons leading up to the lesson in question.

208. Hypothesis: A common defense in supervision consists of teachers' claims that factors which the supervisor suggests were missing from teaching have actually occurred just before of just after the teaching that has been observed, e.g., pupil-evaluation, participation of certain pupils, and transitions to other lessons.

Dependencies in Supervision See, "Charismatic Teaching."

209. Hypothesis: Supervision that typically offers extrinsic rewards to teachers, e.g., praise and compliments, can teach teachers to await them and to depend upon them, an incidental learning that operates against the expansion of teachers' professional autonomy.

210. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to rely upon supervisors for evaluation, i.e., to know whether their teaching is "good or bad" and do not, in most cases, feel satisfied by supervisory enjoinders to engage in self-evaluation, even when efforts in that direction are guided by the supervisor.

211. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to rely upon their supervisors to set problems, issues and questions in supervision and to indicate the directions in which modifications of teaching behavior should proceed. More simply, they rely upon their supervisors to tell them "what was wrong and what to do about it."

212. Hypothesis: The more supervisors do things for teachers that the teachers might have done for themselves, the more dependent upon the supervisors for doing such things the teachers become.

213. Hypothesis: Dependencies for advice are likely to be accompanied by dependencies for evaluation and for initiating supervisory issues.

Dependencies in Supervision (Continued.)

214. Hypothesis: Any supervisory practice that promotes some specific dependency is likely to promote dependency generally.

215. Hypothesis: The imposition of "truths" from alien disciplines by members of the faculty results in increased dependency upon authority by the student.

216. Hypothesis: Specialized terminology and verbal "telegraphy" by the faculty results in increased dependency upon authority by the students.

217. Hypothesis: Supervision that incorporates admonishments tends to infantilize supervisees, to make them feel infantilized, and either increases their dependencies upon supervisors or alienates them from supervision.

218. Problem: How can teachers who have learned professional dependency be taught to value and to practice self-evaluation on objective criteria of mastery?

Depersonalization of Supervisory Issues See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers" and "Achieving Supervisory Goals."

219. Proposition: Particularly with defensive supervisees, supervision is most likely to succeed when it is centered upon problems, i.e., depersonalized problems, rather than when it focuses upon the supervisee's behavior *per se*.

Effects of Professional Expertise See, "Role-Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching" and "Students' Self-Perceptions."

220. Problem: What factors determine whether supervisory expertise will constitute a threat or will inspire confidence among supervisees?

221. Hypothesis: Reflections of erudition and self-confidence by supervisors inspire confidence in them by supervisees.

Effects of Professional Expertise (Continued.)

222. Antithesis: Supervisees tend to feel intimidated by supervisors' expertise and are given to making individious comparisons between supervisors' competencies and their own.

223. Hypothesis: Disparities between the faculty's and students' general and professional fluency constitute an instructional problem: rather than being an advantage, the faculty's fluency becomes a disadvantage when students do not comprehend its meanings and when they make individious comparisons between themselves and their instructors in this connection.

224. Problem: Means must be developed for adjusting discrepancies between instructors' and students' fluency that put students at a disadvantage or that make them feel disadvantaged.

225. Hypothesis: Students who are particularly sensitive to status disparities in the professional/academic hierarchy are likely to transfer such feelings into the context of differences in competency such that, for example, for the faculty to acknowledge special competency among supervision students or in reference to some fellow teaching student seems, to the teacher in question, like an expression of preferential treatment vis-a-vis hierarchical status.

226. Hypothesis: Many teaching students assume that someone whose position is high in the professional/adacemic hierarchy is more competent (generally or in some specialty) than someone in a low status position and tend to feel that their own occupancy of low-level status positions is, somehow, a reflection of the faculty's (or the profession's) estimate of their competency. They manifest a general defensiveness in this regard.

227. Hypothesis: Technically adroit supervision is more likely to seem mysterious to students who typically employ premature generalizations, global evaluations and professional stereotypes than to those who have greater ability to await generalizations and who expect that defineable technical elements exist, even when they cannot recognize them.

228. Hypothesis: Particularly for students who tended toward stereotypy and quick generalization in their own thinking, demonstrations of technical adroitness in supervision by their instructors tended to seem

Effects of Professional Expertise (Continued.)

mysterious (capricious, willful). Rather than understanding the significance of and relationships between technical elements in their instructor's behavior, they saw his interpretations and supervisory gambits as being predominantly arbitrary and intuitive. Other, more analytical students, seemed more prepared to expect that adroit performances could be broken down into their technical elements by and large and tended less to project stereotypes and arbitrariness onto demonstrated pupervisory beharior.

229. Problem: These hypotheses could be tested empirically by attempts to locate students on the continuum we have designated in conjunction with questioning that elicited detailed information about what students think they have perceived in demonstrations of supervision.

Ego-Counseling and Supervision See, "Counseling and Supervision."

Ego-Involvement in Supervision and Teaching See, "Emotional Determinants in Supervision."

230. Hypothesis: The notion of separating oneself, i.e., one's feelings from one's work is not trusted by most students and is not a useful exhortation to employ in supervision.

231. Hypothesis: The notion of separating oneself from one's work in a literal sense is psychologically invalid.

232. Hypothesis: Students who claim to have divested themselves of emotional involvement in their work are likely not to recognize their own psychological processes.

233. Recommendation: Rather than enjoining students and supervisees to achieve degrees of objectivity and freedom from emotional involvement in their technical behavior which are unrealistic for them, it is more productive to reward objectivity when it is manifested and to aim at heightening students' understanding of the personal implications of their professional behavior, the personal resources they bring to it, and of ways in which they may develop fuller self-expression in professional undertakings.

Ego-Involvement in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

234. Proposition: Ego-involvement is desirable in teaching and in supervision insofar as it is required for rewards to be reinforcing.

235. General Problem: One policy of clinical supervision has been to deal only with "superficial" behaviors, i.e., with behaviors not so rooted in personal necessities nor so encumbered with affect as to be inappropriate (refractory, volatile, dangerous) or unfeasible for supervisory modification.

236. Problem: Does it correspond with psychological realities and/or with psychological theory to imagine patterns of professional behavior that are unrooted in personality or whose rootedness can be in varying degrees?

237. Problem: Given the rationale for treating superficial behavior, viz., that supervisors are not qualified to treat personality in depth, and given the possibility that any symptomatic treatment has consequences for the underlying personality, what principles should establish the parameters of supervisory treatment?

238. Problem: Is it possible to reconcile the policy of superficial treatment of superficial behavior with a second policy, viz., to deal with recurring patterns of behavior rather than with seemingly isolated behavioral events; with typical rather than with aberrational behavior; given the probability that behaviors so salient and habitual to be recognizable as patterns will, in fact, be a direct expression of personality and will have firm anchorage in the total psychological organization?

Emotional Determinants in Supervision

See, "Counseling and Supervision; Supervisors' Needs" and "Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision."

239. Hypothesis: Technical inadequacies in supervision and teaching often derive from emotional causes.

240. Proposition: Supervision conferences should be terminated when the supervisor finds himself becoming anxious or defensive, when such feelings are regulating his behavior rather than rational supervisory strategies, and when he feels unable to bring his feelings under control.

Emotional Determinants in Supervision (Continued.)

241. Hypothesis: When supervisors manifest anxiety, as, for example, in connection to their fear that they are not "doing the right thing" in supervision, supervisees tend to impose the problem of protecting the supervisor upon themselves, in addition to the problems that already exist in their own frames of reference.

242. Hypothesis: Technical assistance has effects upon emotional underpinnings of technical weaknesses.

243. Problem: What are the effects of technical and symptomatic treatment on emotional underpinnings?

244. Hypothesis: Because emotional variables influence teaching and supervisory behavior, more complete understanding and control over such behavior requires that supervisors know more than methods and techniques of teaching and that they provide more than technical assistance to teachers.

245. Hypothesis: Increases in stress exacerbate students' latent tendencies to elevate their own status by derrogating other students' competencies and sometimes lead to ostracism and scapegoating.

246. Hypothesis: Being unsupplied with relevant constructs and principles of treatment, the effect of observed anxiety upon supervisors is generally to make them anxious.

247. Hypothesis: The expectation to fail causes supervision students to avoid certain supervisory relationships.

248. Hypothesis: For some supervision students, the effect of failures was to make success too precious; heightened premiums on success generated overweening ambitions; overweening ambitions led to failures which, in turn, heightened premiums on success, in the fashion of a vicious circle.

249. Hypothesis: A common source of frustration in supervision is that supervisors are unknowingly motivated by their own needs rather than by the teachers' with the result that, having no obvious correspondence to

implicit evaluation criteria, evidence of success and failure are not properly registered in their experience.

250. Problem: The entire problem of supervisors' emotional involvements, e.g., anxieties, defenses, guilt feelings, counter-transferences, feelings of responsibility, sources of reward, and motives in supervision requires extensive study if supervisors are to develop the insights into and controls over their own professional behavior that counselors are supposed to achieve in their professional training.

251. Recommendation: Psychological counselors should be employed in supervisor education to help supervisors to learn techniques of self-analysis and to deal with discoveries about themselves to which such analysis leads.

252. Hypothesis: It is possible to develop introspective criteria for deciding whether or not to continue supervisory relationships. I.e., supervision students can be taught to recognize the existence of hostilities and prejudices in their own feelings which, without such training, they would be likely not to recognize even though they were being influenced by them.

253. Proposition: Non-rational determinants operating in supervisory relationships require study in order for comprehensive models of supervision to be developed.

254. Hypothesis: In one-to-one and in group supervisory relationships, teachers' and supervisors' behavior is partly conditioned by unintentional and unconscious factors such as those that operate in psychological transferences and in transference relationships. (Transference phenomena should be studied as behavioral determinants in supervision and as factors that influence feelings, expectations, perceptions, assessments, motivations, etc.)

Evaluating Supervision

255. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students both tend, retroactively, to consider supervisory relationships to have failed where the teaching students felt no support from their supervisors and/or

where the supervision students felt unable to devise means for being supportive.

256. Hypothesis: Supervision students do not incorporate as rigorous practices of recording data, withholding value judgments, etc., in reflexive (post-mortem) analyses as they do in supervision of teachers.

257. Hypothesis: The technique of basing post-mortem analyses of supervision on the criterion of how well the supervisors executed *a priori* strategies is faulty insofar as such strategies may have been weak ones.

258. Hypothesis: Supervisory groups in which faculty members did *not* participate were generally considered to be successful because supervision conducted by such groups was less rigorous than that practiced by groups which included instructors.

259. Problem: Develop collections of students' definitions of successful supervision and specific examples of supervisory behaviors (by both supervisors and supervisees) and supervisory outcomes that they consider to be successful. Interviews could generate information about specific advantages and disadvantages teachers attribute to specific supervisory behaviors from which it might be possible to develop valid generalizations concerning supervision that is likely to be valued by supervisees.

260. Problem: Because it appears so frequently in supervision, "cynicism" relating to values, practices, research and goals in teaching should be studied extensively. Supervisory behavior should be examined in reference to the question of which of its elements commonly induce cynicism and in relation to the problem of how to supervise cynical teachers.

Explicating Supervisors' and Teachers' Rationales

See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers" and "Vocational, activistic and Pragmatic Orientations."

261. Hypothesis: It aids communication and avoids confusion for the organizing principles that govern any given supervisory analysis to be

stated explicitly, *a priori*, or as they emerge during the conference. For example, to specify that the supervisor will proceed to postulate what experiences for the pupils were like and to cite data in that regard, or, for the supervisor to specify that he will proceed to examine teaching for causes of behavioral "effects" that were observed, is better than to commence in the use of such techniques without characterizing what one is doing. Identification of such strategies *a posteriori* can also be useful in the sense of helping participants to integrate events that have come before: e.g., "You may have been aware that every time one of the supervisors proposed a value judgment in connection to some pattern of your teaching, I attempted to argue an opposing judgment in order to illustrate how subjective our evaluation criteria are and how arbitrary our interpretations of the data."

262. Hypothesis: Unless the rationales for doing so are reviewed periodically, specific practices such as dealing with patterns of behavior rather than with isolated behavioral events are likely to become ritualistic for supervision students.

263. Hypothesis: The practice of asking teaching students for the rationales that underlie their behavior tends to become very abrasive to them when it is employed frequently or in connection to behaviors, decisions, etc., that have been made hurriedly in order to enable action of some kind. Teaching students tend to see such explanations as being mainly for the supervisors' sake and as time-wasters in relation to their own work.

264. Hypothesis: The supervisory function of asking teaching students to explain rationales for their decisions is not generally welcomed by the teaching students and tends to be abrasive for them. By and large, they see the practice as being pedantic and aggravating rather than productively useful to themselves.

265. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to believe that the advantages of intuitive behavior, viz., that it represents the fastest means for coping with problems, are lost by analysis of behavior and by the requirement to specify rationales because of the time such approaches consume.

266. Hypothesis: When asked for rationales, teaching students frequently cite professional cliches that are not intrinsically meaningful nor valid

in relation to established knowledge.

267. Proposition: Given the prevalent condition in which teaching behavior is not guided by explicit and valid rationales and in which teachers tend to operate largely in relation to implicit assumptions (and values), the most important and unique contribution that can be made by supervision is that of exposing what is implicit and pressing for rational and explicit approaches to professional behavior.

Feedback See, "Phenomenological Research in Supervision."

268. Hypothesis: Instead of being based upon feedback from the pupils or inferences arising from the practice of trying to imagine what experiences were like for the pupils during a lesson, teachers' evaluations of their own teaching tend to be tautological and based upon "logical" reasoning: teaching is thought to be successful when the teacher has executed the plan he had for teaching, e.g., if the teacher intended to teach historical information and if his lecture included the historical information he intended to teach, he is then likely to conclude that he has been successful -- without reference to direct data relating to the pupils' learning.

269. Hypothesis: Teaching students are not generally alert to the desirability and techniques of collecting, processing and interpreting feedback from the pupils as a continuous function of teaching. Their own appraisals of whether teaching has been good or bad are generally related to their beliefs about what constitutes good teaching (which they employ as standards of comparison for the teaching they have done) rather than to what has actually gone on, vis-a-vis the pupils.

270. Hypothesis: Knowledge about the effectiveness of teaching, the achievement of process goals and the existence of incidental learnings that has been absent in the past could be generated by feedback from pupils.

271. Recommendation: Develop techniques of procuring feedback from pupils in relation to their experiences in observed classes.

272. Proposition: Observers require special training to know what

elements of pupil behavior constitute significant feedback and to determine the significance of such feedback.

Folklore See, "Projecting Images of Supervision."

The year-to-year existence of programs like Harvard-Lexington engenders a folklore about them in communities from which students and faculty come.

273. Hypothesis: Students' expectations and, in some cases, their apprehensions derive from the folklore associated with graduate programs like Harvard-Lexington to which they have been exposed beforehand.

274. Hypothesis: A priori conceptions about a program arising from the mythology that surrounds it often result in frustrations, misunderstandings and unrealistic expectations for students and faculty when they are unknown to the faculty.

275. Recommendation: Investigate the existence of myths about such programs and/or specific individuals associated with them to determine whether deliberate action should be directed toward reinforcing or modifying students' preconceptions.

Full Analysis

276. Problem: Full analysis was originally construed as a means for supervising "strong" teachers, teachers who had experienced success in previous group supervision, who seemed ready for fuller treatment and for more complex analyses of their teaching. It was also seen as a means for ridding fundamentally strong supervisees of residual anxieties they may have had concerning the mystique associated with strategy sessions from which they were excluded. In effect, full analysis was a reward for having been successful in "safer" forms of supervision. Experience suggests, however, that good reasons may exist for employing the full analysis approach with weak teachers who, in some cases, are much more troubled by the mysteries surrounding strategy than their more resilient colleagues. Empirical data are required in

reference to how teaching students tend to feel generally about the full analysis experience -- both before and after they have encountered it -- and to supervisors' ideas about that practice.

277. Hypothesis: Full analysis avoids the disturbing mystique associated with strategy sessions from which supervisees are excluded.

278. Hypothesis: Full analysis represents a level of increased complexity appropriate for teaching and supervision students who are advanced in their professional learning.

279. Hypothesis: Because they do not focus upon supervisory issues formulated in advance (i.e., in strategy), full analyses are less likely to seem contrived to supervisees than conventional ones.

280. Hypothesis: Full analysis, which deals with the "total" teaching performance rather than with preselected patterns of teaching, avoids the situation in which teachers become defensive in relation to some pattern -- even a "good" one -- simply because the supervisor isolated it.

281. Antithesis: For anxious supervisees, full analysis will be particularly threatening because of the notion that, in effect, such analysis represents attack upon the total performance.

282. Hypothesis: Permitting the supervisee to select issues to prosecute from the complete array of issues reduces the likelihood that defensiveness will be manifested in relation to any given issue.

283. Hypothesis: Given feelings of vulnerability and of being threatened, a supervisee so disposed will select issues from a free analysis that he imagines the supervisors feel critically about. In other words, in an aggressive manner, the supervisee will anticipate attack by selecting issues that seem most likely, from his own frame of reference, to elicit attack from the supervisors.

284. Hypothesis: Supervisees are less likely to engage in defensive denial if they listen to tape-recorded full analyses than if they are

present at such analyses, because the presence and the dialectical relationship with supervisors includes targets for denial, viz., the supervisors.

285. Hypothesis: A disadvantage connected to having supervisees listen to taped full analyses is that they tend to wait, suspensefully, for critical remarks and they tend to remember negative elements more clearly and for a longer time than positive ones. Although these conditions might also exist in "live" analysis, at least the simultaneous presence of supervisors and supervisees could provide the supervisors with opportunities for discerning the supervisee's responses to supervision in time for distortions to be corrected, emphases to be shifted, etc.

286. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to experience invitations to full-analysis as votes of confidence in them by supervisors.

287. Problem:Phenomenological data on full analysis are required in order to make decisions affecting its use wisely.

288. Hypothesis: A principal advantage of full analysis is that it provides for the supervisee to come to grips with supervisory issues at his own pace.

289. Hypothesis: Given the subjectivity of judgments concerning the "goodness" of lessons and the "strengths" of teachers, to employ "good lessons/strong teachers" as a criterion for using full analysis is to risk frequent failures because of the likelihood of frequent misjudgments.

290. Problem: General study should be directed to the problem of when to use full analysis, what selection criteria should be considered and what special evaluative and predictive techniques may be required for that practice.

291. Hypothesis: Supervisors fear that they will be inhibited in full analysis from being as searching, in their attention to the data, as they might be in a closed strategy session.

Full Analysis (Continued.)

292. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to fear that taped strategies for use by the supervisee are dangerous to themselves because their anonymity is unprotected and their candid remarks may alienate teachers from them.

293. Hypothesis: Supervision students generally expect that in a full analysis the supervisee will play a role like that of the observers.

294. Hypothesis: Teachers are afraid that taped and full analyses inhibit supervisors from saying what they would have said without the teacher's presence.

295. Problem: To create a role for teachers in full analysis that is identical to those being played by the observers is wasteful in the sense that special roles might exist for the supervisee in which he added a phenomenological component to the data to which none of the observers has access. In this manner, the data can be enriched, the analysis deepened and the teacher rewarded by dealing with issues that incorporate his feelings about his work.

296. Hypothesis: There is a stronger chance that the teachers' and supervisors' frames of reference will coincide in full analysis than in conventional analysis.

297. Recommendation: Set as an explicit problem, "role-definitions for teachers in full analysis" in programs of teacher-supervisor education.

Generalization and Specificity of Supervisory Issues See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers."

298. Problem: Does our experience of being frequently unable to teach generalizations concerning supervisory practice reflect an improbability that any model of clinical supervision can be developed to apply to all cases or that the time at our disposal was inadequate to discover common factors that existed among apparently diverse teachers? What other explanations are credible?

299. Problem: When should general discussion be permitted in analysis

conferences whose purpose is, presumably, to deal with specific problems in the context of observed teaching and planning for future teaching?

300. Hypothesis: Analysis conferences spent in general discussion of general issues often leave teachers feeling that their time has been wasted.

301. Hypothesis: General discussion can broaden the context for supervision.

302. Hypothesis: General discussion can create relaxing interludes in supervision.

303. Hypothesis: General discussion can provide a means of escape in supervision for both teachers and supervisors; flight into generalities often follows frustrated attempts to deal with specific issues.

Group Supervision See, "Supervision of Team Teaching."

304. Hypothesis: An observation team has greater intellectual (analytical, interpretive, perceptual) power than any single supervisor.

305. Antithesis: Group supervision is less intellectually potent than individual supervision because of inefficiencies that inhere in communication.

306. Hypothesis: Group supervision embodies safeguards against dogmatism, caprice, prejudices and distortions that may be attached to any single supervisor's behavior.

307. Antithtsis: Group supervision is potentially more unfair to teachers than individual supervision because of the intellectual tyrannies that can result from consensual agreement, consensual "validation" of invalid perceptions, and the possibility for group opinion to be dominated by socially aggressive or litigiously gifted individuals.

Group Supervision (Continued.)

308. Hypothesis: Multiple observers increase the scope of a teacher's perceptions of his classroom behavior (and the pupils').

309. Antithesis: Multiple observers generally command so much of the teacher's conscious or unconscious attention that, in effect, they reduce the scope of his perceptions of classroom events.

310. Hypothesis: Consensual validation represents one means available to supervision teams for protecting the objectivity of their perceptions.

311. Proposition: A principal advantage associated with deploying certain participants to deal with certain issues in group supervision is that time is thereby created for supervisors to locate data they need, while the conference is in progress, without creating awkward delays and silences.

312. Question: Does such deployment, in contrast to non-specialized roles, invite the possibility of multiplying disadvantages associated with individual supervision (i.e., instead of one biased supervisor, there may be several biased supervisors functioning unilaterally)?

313. Hypothesis: The ostensible safeguards of group supervision do not inhere automatically; it is not necessarily more free from prejudice than individual supervision.

314. Hypothesis: An advantage of group supervision is that participation of several supervisors reduces tensions that can develop in diadic communication.

315. Antithesis: Group supervision multiplies the possibilities for tensions to arise in diadic communication and intensifies their effects by creating an audience.

316. Hypothesis: Group supervision provides opportunities to remove the supervisee from the center of attention and, thereby, to reduce stress at critical moments.

Group Supervision (Continued.)

317. Antithesis: The feeling of uneven odds generally creates greater stress for teachers in conjunction with group supervision than with individual supervision.

318. Hypothesis: Supervision by groups will generally be more fluent than one-to-one supervision because of opportunities inherent in group practice for organizing thoughts and materials while the conference is in progress.

319. Problem: Develop effective cues for participation in group supervision, e.g., to speed up, to slow down, to terminate a line of inquiry, to end the conference, to permit some participant to depart from the original strategy, to offer data.

320. Problem: Special study should be directed toward the problem of increasing a supervisory group's adaptability during analysis conferences, by establishing standard signals for use by supervisors.

321. Hypothesis: Supervision students (and faculty) tend to employ individual supervision rather than group supervision in especially difficult cases where the supervisee is thought to be particularly fragile.

322. Hypothesis: The ostensibly protective features of clinical group supervision are belied by the practice of engaging in one-to-one supervision with supervisees who seem to require protection especially.

323. Hypothesis: The apparent contradiction between the ostensible protections of group supervision and the tendency to employ individual supervision when protection is particularly required simply reflects certain qualifications that were not specified in the original model of clinical group supervision:

a. Group supervision will only seem protective after teachers have overcome their initial perceptions and feelings about unfair odds.

b. The special equities of group supervision are only likely to be perceived and appreciated by supervisees after they have knowingly encountered them.

Group Supervision (Continued.)

c. Success of group supervision, vis-a-vis feelings of protection, is likely to depend on previous experiences in supervision generally, as well as in group supervision, in which the supervisee did feel protected.

324. Hypothesis: Instances of domination by a single member belie the claim that supervisory groups command greater intellectual power than individual supervisors.

325. Hypothesis: In the face of unpredicted outcomes, an individual supervisor is more flexible and, consequently, more liklly to change the course of an analysis conference appropriately than a group of supervisors.

326. Problem: An empirical question is of what the special stresses are that are commonly experienced by supervisors in conjunction with group supervision on the one hand and individual supervision on the other.

327. Hypothesis: The requirements for eye-to-eye contact and to sustain a supervisory dialogue without assistance or relief by other parties, represent special stresses experienced by supervision students in one-to-one supervision.

328. Hypothesis: A feeling of exposure and inhibitions associated with performing in public represent special stresses for supervision students in group supervision.

329. Hypothesis: One characteristic of group supervision that tends to relieve supervisors' stress is that it provides opportunities for the conversational initiative to be transferred from member to member and for supervisors to assimilate data and to formulate their thoughts during dialectical interstices.

Hierarchical Intervention

The principle of hierarchical intervention requires that supervisory behavior (interventions) during conferences develops along a continuum of directiveness such that having attempted to achieve certain outcomes by non-directive action, the supervisor becomes increasingly directive until he reaches the intensity of directiveness that achieves his desired goals.

330. Hypothesis: Employment of the principle of hierarchical intervention is most consistent with the supervisory objective of creating maximal opportunities for supervisees to initiate their own issues in supervision, to formulate their own strategies, and to expand their professional autonomy thereby.

331. Recommendation: Empirically, develop a catalogue of methods actually employed by supervision students for coping with unexpected events and, particularly, with unanticipated difficulties in supervision conferences. Develop a taxonomy of such behaviors in accordance with the principle of hierarchical intervention to serve as a guide for supervision in the future.

332. Hypothesis: Unless the principle of hierarchical intervention is explained to teaching students, they are likely to experience its initial phases in practice as indecisiveness on the supervisor's part.

333. Hypothesis: Teaching students' explicit awareness of the employment of the principle of hierarchical intervention or, for that matter, of any principles of supervisory behavior of that kind, is likely to be associated with the feeling of being psychologically manipulated.

334. Problem: Empirical study of the use of hierarchical interventions in supervision may yield systems of categorization of supervisees in reference to which formal level of intervention they typically respond in the intended manner.

Incidental Learning

All teaching and supervision is likely to result in learnings that were not consciously intended by the instructor or by the supervisor and of which he may not be consciously aware even after they have occurred. Such learnings may arise from teaching or supervisory behavior, the learning environment, or endopsychic sources. Unintended learnings of this kind are called "incidental learnings."

335. Hypothesis: Incidental learnings can promote, inhibit or be neutral in relation to intended learning outcomes.

336. Hypothesis: Insofar as they are irrelevant, incidental learnings generally constitute interferences and distractions in relation to intended learning outcomes.

337. Hypothesis: Although incidental learnings occur partly because of learners' predispositions toward them, supervision and teaching can be planned deliberately to avoid certain incidental learnings and desirable learnings that might have occurred incidently can be promoted deliberately for most learners.

338. Hypothesis: Incidental learnings are most likely to pertain to the learner in relationship to the material, to the learning environment, and to the instructor.

339. Hypothesis: Incidental learnings often oppose intended learnings.

340. Recommendation: Supervision and teaching should be examined in reference to the question of what incidental learnings they might predictably have engendered.

341. Hypothesis: Incidental learnings appear to be more often in opposition or neutral to intended outcomes than to promote them because of the difficulty in distinguishing intended outcomes that occur as the result of deliberate behaviors from those which occur incidently.

342. Hypothesis: Supervision students are initially more concerned with the feelings evoked by analyses they perform and with social outcomes of their supervision than with the technical quality and pro-

fessional benefits that result.

343. Hypothesis: Supervision students (and instructors) inadvertently teach the teaching students not to be concerned with analysis of teaching because they will be.

344. Hypothesis: Emphatic prosecution of any practice or issue or problem by the faculty is likely to teach the students that it is not necessary for them to be equally invested in such issues.

Initiating Supervision See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers; Beginning the Supervision Conference" and "Initiation of Goals and Issues in Supervision."

345. Hypothesis: To base supervision on teacher-initiated issues and on teachers' invitations to supervise, virtually assures that the teachers will be appropriately invested in supervision.

346. Hypothesis: To supervise when teachers invite supervision is consistent with the supervisory objective to promote teachers' professional autonomy and with the process goal, "self-initiated learning."

347 Hypothesis: Supervision based entirely upon teachers' invitations and issues that they initiate is likely to miss sectors of their professional behavior that require supervision most. Also, generalization of successful techniques from one area of teaching into another is not necessarily valid.

348. Hypothesis: A potential danger of supervisor-initiated supervision is that it is inconsistent with promoting teachers' autonomy to impose supervision upon them.

349. Hypothesis: Supervisor-initiated supervision can promote the incidental learning that the supervisor is invested in the teachers'

professional welfare.

350. Hypothesis: Insistance that every teaching student accept supervision engenders stresses with which supervisors and instructors are generally unqualified to cope effectively in teaching-supervision practicums.

Initiation of Goals and Issues in Supervision See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers; Full Analysis" and "Students' Self-Perceptions."

351. Hypothesis: Teachers will interpret supervisors' commitments to their (the teachers') goals as an indication of acceptance.

352. Hypothesis: Teachers' investment in strategies will generally be greater when they have originated them or played a major role in their formulation than when they are offered by supervisors.

353. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to feel that supervision is static when it returns to consider the same issues in consecutive cycles of supervision. Supervisors also tend to feel that their practice becomes jaded when the same issues are recapitulated again and again in any given supervisory relationship.

354. Recommendation: Teaching and supervision students should be taught the concept that patterns of teaching behavior recapitulated in supervisory analyses are never exactly the same because of intervening experiences and situational changes and that special skills must be developed to recognize and to understand the significance of small increments of change and of small, successive approximations of intended modifications.

355. Hypothesis: Supervision that is structured around the supervisor's priorities leads teachers to aim at pleasing their supervisors rather than toward changing their teaching for more direct and intrinsic motives.

356. Problem: Can general criteria be formulated in reference to which the question of whether or not to broach any given supervisory issue can be decided?

Initiation of Goals and Issues in Supervision (Continued.)

357. Problem: When should supervssors not be committed to following teachers' lines of inquiry in supervision?

358. Hypothesis: Supervisors should not follow supervisees' lines of inquiry in analysis when it appears that false issues, diversionary tactics, or issues that are unmanageable either because they are too abstract or they consist of material that goes beyond the supervisor's competency to treat have been introduced.

359. Proposition: If it appears that a supervisee's faultiness of logical reasoning has created problems in his teaching, the supervisor should not be governed by his faulty sequences in analysis.

360. Problem: Study is required to illuminate the general problem of what factors are generally relevant for deciding whether to present the full data, the full data with interpretations, partial data, partial data with interpretations, or interpretations alone or in advance of data in supervision.

361. Problem: Should illusions of competency be challenged in supervision?

362. Problem: Study should be directed toward the question of whether general principles can be formulated in reference to what categories of "psychological" material should be introduced into or withheld from supervisory analyses. This question has ethical as well as clinical importance.

363. Hypothesis: Neophyte supervisors operate as though they believed, implicitly, that they should always assume the initiative in supervisory dialogue. They tend to persevere in *a priori* supervisory strategies even when such strategies become unnecessary to follow in supervision.

Inquiry in Teaching and Supervision See, "Process Goals."

364. Hypothesis: Verbalization does not necessarily reflect inquiry or understanding. Rather, it can serve defensively as compensation for ignorance.

Inquiry in Teaching and Supervision (Continued.)

365. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students are likely not to realize that inquiry must operate within a substantive framework when they begin to study process goals.

Instructional Strategies for Teaching/Supervision Practicums See, "Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums."

366. Hypothesis: If students are helped to experience success in their own terms first, and if their success is acknowledged by the faculty, the chances are greater that they will experience success subsequently in the faculty's terms and will be more willing to run risks than if, from the beginning, they are required to be successful in reference to the faculty's goals.

367. Hypothesis: If students experience success working in areas of relative certainty at first, they will be more likely than otherwise to run risks in areas of uncertainty later.

368. Hypothesis: Approval by the Harvard-Lexington faculty of partial successes and of small increments of gain is sufficiently strengthening for some students to serve as their principal basis for taking new risks.

369. Hypothesis: If individual differences were reflected in individualized instruction from the outset, stigmas would not develop in connection to "unusual practices;" differences in the amount or type of supervision received; withdrawal from supervision by either the supervisee or the supervisors; and differences in teaching and supervisory load.

370. Problem: In relation to whether, in short teaching supervision practicums that aim, concurrently, to develop specific technical skills and to teach new professional generalizations, the problem exists of whether it is sufficient to supervise teaching in depth in, perhaps, one subject area, or whether it is necessary to supervise teaching in all of the subject areas that are represented. On the one hand it seems likely that certain formal characteristics of teaching behavior, e.g., questioning techniques and reward patterns can be studied in connection to almost any subject such that skills developed will be applicable in other areas. On the other hand, however, experience

suggests that teaching skills developed in one content area are frequently applied inappropriately in others. Whether this phenomenon is mainly attributable to differences among the structures of various disciplines or whether it reflects incomplete learning or insufficient teaching in the first place is obscure. Systematic study is required to demonstrate whether misapplications occur more frequently in interdisciplinary transpositions or within any given area of instruction, and to show whether certain subjects offer better grounds for teaching certain skills than others and which technical skills are of a "general" character.

371. Problem: The general problem in programs of supervisor education is of how to disseminate models of supervision that are theoretically and operationally incomplete; how to communicate general supervisory strategies whose elements are not all explicitly defined or articulable, even by the instructor who enacts them.

372. Problem: In connection to the problem of disseminating operational models of clinical supervision in a period of its development where such models have not been fully formulated, retroactive analysis of video or audio tape recordings of demonstrated supervisory behavior does not represent a perfect solution. The specific problem in this regard is that the strategies enacted in supervisory behavior cannot be reconstructed as completely as those, for example, employed in a game of chess. Many such strategies are implicit; behavior is often motivated by unconscious strategies which, in effect, represents an absence of strategies; it is impossible to recall one's ideas and motives at every juncture of supervision; and supervisory behavior sometimes occurs in opposition to conscious, explicit strategies because control over technical behavior is incomplete.

373. Problem: In relation to the problem of disseminating models of clinical supervision by demonstration, it will almost always be true that demonstrations of supervisory behavior will be technically and theoretically imperfect; the data will be impure in the sense of incorporating deviations from the model being demonstrated.

374. Hypothesis: Impure data of this kind tends to make students cynical in regard to inconsistencies between theory and practice.

375. Hypothesis: Impure data presents a potential didactic advantage:

in reference to its deviations from the general model, examination of imperfect behavior and identification of its technical faults helps to set more ideal practices into sharper relief by providing contrasts.

376. Problem: Instructors in supervisor education are faced with the problem of how to develop operational models of supervision and of such innovations as teaching (and supervising) for process goals. On the one hand, it is not always possible to imagine operational strategies in advance nor even to be able to formulate positive examples explicitly after having observed teaching that seems to have incorporated them and, on the other, to approach the task by citing negative examples, hypothetical or real, tends to generate a pessimistic outlook on the problem. It is additionally true that operational strategies which are successful under one set of conditions will not necessarily be successful under others. Study should be directed to the general problem of how to formulate operational models and operational strategies by means other than those presently employed which consist, essentially, of empirical approaches to teaching and supervision, and of how to make empirical approaches more systematic and efficient.

377. Proposition: For the purposes of teaching skills of separating perceptions from inferences and for teaching about the dangers of selective perception, it is best to require supervision students to record all of the verbatim material rather than selected material during the initial stages of their training.

378. Problem: Is it better practice for instructors to permit student-led supervision conferences to fail, when failure seems imminent, or to intervene for the purpose of "saving" conferences that have begun to deteriorate?

379. Hypothesis: Supervision students are likely to learn more from retroactive analyses of weak supervision conferences than from interventions into such conferences by their instructors.

380. Hypothesis: Interventions are hard on the supervisors' morale and tend to undermine teaching students' confidence in them.

381. Antithesis: Because supervision is so tenuous in relation to being accepted by teachers, instructors' intervention into weak

student-led supervision conferences represents good practice: it salvages potential advantages of the supervision and averts failures that might alienate teachers from the practice.

382. Problem: Categorize students in reference to the frequency with which they employ professional stereotypes, i.e., the frequency of verbalizations from which subscriptions to professional stereotypes can be directly inferred; their manifest need for prompt generalizations (summary generalizations) and their manifest ability to postpone summary generalizations. In connection to such a continuum, students could be screened for special experiences in supervisory training.

383. Problem: Taxonomical differences among students in regard to their perceptions of supervision and their tendencies to require summary generalizations, etc., could be used to develop training with different emphases: for students who do seem to require prompt summary generalizations, special effort could be directed toward modifying that tendency while, for others, emphasis might be placed upon developing more advanced technical skills.

384. Problem: The whole question of social factors that influence teaching students' behavior in supervisory roles and which operate generally in supervision requires detailed study. Manipulation of social variables could constitute the basis for experimental research in this context, e.g., ascriptions of status to specific roles in supervision and teaching teams, composition of supervision teams (i.e., in reference to numbers of teaching and supervision students) and allocation of teaching responsibilities to supervision students, could be examined in relationship to students' perceptions, feelings, and evaluations of supervision. Some experimental strategies might be to have certain teaching students be responsible for supervision consistently; to incorporate supervision of teachingand planning as a daily activity involving all members of the teaching-supervisory team; to place responsibility for planning with the instructors in supervision and with the supervision students; and to teach teaching students analytical skills by means other than those involving observation of their fellow-teachers.

385. Problem: At what stage does observation and supervision represent an effective mode for teaching teachers new instructional approaches such as those incorporated by teaching for process goals?

Instructional Strategies (Continued.)

386. Proposition: Because they will not have developed coordinated skills in conjunction with novel approaches to teaching, supervision and observation are not the best means for teaching teachers new modes of professional behavior, especially at the beginning; their lack of technical skill will make supervision seem over-balanced in the direction of finding inadequacies and will create a pessimistic coloring.

387. Recommendation: The faculties of programs like Harvard-Lexington should state in advance and/or set as an explicit problem for themselves and for the students, definitions of and distinctions between short and long-range goals. Confusion between immediate and eventual objectives gave rise to conflicts between priorities that could have been avoided if distinctions of this kind had been entertained and if immediacies had been understood as means as well as ends, i.e., as instrumentalities for future outcomes.

388. Problem: The faculty's own goal-setting and program planning should proceed in reference to empirical data on the students' goals and expectations. Knowing such facts about the students would enable the faculty to satisfy their expectations or to contrive to frustrate them deliberately, for didactic purposes, but, in any event, would result in a more comprehensive understanding of the significance of its decisions and behavior at any given juncture of the program.

389. Problem: What are the students' principal expectations and goals at Harvard-Lexington (and in similar programs)?

390. Hypothesis: It is generally confusing to students to be taught multiple models of professional practice from the beginning and represents an unacceptable strategy for them because, especially in the beginning stages, they experience needs for stable structures and technical certainties and, consequently, feel more confident in attempting to learn a single model.

391. Problem: Rationales should be developed to indicate at what moments inductive teaching and at what moments didactic teaching are appropriate to employ in programs of teacher/supervisor education.

392. Problem: How can students who fear analysis experience success in

programs like Harvard-Lexington?

Leadership See, "Role-Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching."

393. Problem: Develop prototypical models of leadership to serve as guidelines for action in group supervision.

394. Proposition: For instructors to assign students to leadership roles is inconsistent with decision-making as a function of leadership.

395. Hypothesis: Supervision students cannot be effectively trained for assuming professional leadership without being elevated in the team hierarchy in supervision-teaching practicums.

396. Hypothesis: Students tend to find strong leadership to be inconsistent with democratic leadership.

Learning, Incidental See, "Incidental Learning."

Morale

397. Problem: Although they have neither been studied systematically nor formulated in specific terms, problems of morale seem to exist generally in supervision and in practicums like those of Harvard-Lexington. Research should be undertaken to authenticate "morale" as a real issue and to isolate its component and determining factors. An empirical beginning could consist of questioning designed to elicit students' definitions of their own morale and of related factors in the Harvard-Lexington context and in relation to relevant professional practices.

398. Hypothesis: Supervisors' morale is affected by the clarity with which they can envision a professional modus operandi. When their practice seems absent of well defined conventions they tend to feel less secure than when the rules that govern their professional behavior are clear to them.

Morale (Continued.)

399. Problem: How do supervision students define the experiences, causes and effects of their own morale?

400. Problem: How do teaching students define the experiences, causes and effects of their own morale?

401. Problem: Are there modal, phase-specific factors that are salient in the context of morale at different junctures of professional training, supervision, graduate study, etc.?

402. Hypothesis: The tendency to experience fatigue is correlated with students' level of morale. Students' morale tends to diminish when they perceive themselves as being involved in activities that have no inherent value and that have become drudgery. Consequently, fatigue would be less of a problem in programs like Harvard-Lexington than it has been typically if students' participation in the relatively demanding activities of practicums seemed determined individually and on rational bases to them rather than seeming uniform and unjustified.

403. Hypothesis: Because it is likely to demoralize teaching students who are participating as observers and because it generally proceeds on the basis of inadequate data, general discussions of teachers' professional competency should be eschewed.

Non- Directive Supervision See, "Client-Centered Supervision."

Non-Participating Observers

It has been customary practice to assign supervision students non-participating, observational roles in the initial phase of their contact with teaching practicums.

404. Hypothesis: Supervisors' silent presence in analysis conferences operates against dissipation of teachers' anxieties about supervision because such anxieties tend to be projected upon the supervisors in the absence of positive data.

Non-Participating Observers (Continued.)

405. Hypothesis: Supervisors' silent presence in analysis conferences during the initial phase of a teaching practicum is more threatening to teachers than their active supervisory participation from the outset would be.

406. Hypotheiss: Supervisors' silent presence tends to broaden social and professional gaps between them and the teachers.

407. Hypothesis: Teachers are more likely to resent observation that is unaccompanied by a supervision conference than that which is followed by supervisory feedback.

Objectivity in Supervision See, "Biases in Observation and Supervision."

408. Hypothesis: It is easier to be objective in analyzing demonstrated behavior than in analyzing one's own behavior.

409. Antithesis: It is more possible to be objective in analysis of one's own behavior than in analysis of someone else's, because, having added the phenomenal dimensions, one has considerably more data in reference to one's own behavior and objectivity in behavioral analyses is generally correlated with the abundance of data.

Observers: Non-Participating See, "Non-Participating Observers."

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums See, "Instructional Strategies for Teaching/Supervision Practicums."

410. Hypothesis: A need for clear organizational structure is experienced by most teaching and supervision students in professional practicums and is expressed, for example, by their regressions toward modular concepts, given potential fluid, unstratified, teaching-supervision teams in which to operate.

411. Research: Develop computer programs to identify optimum logistics in relation to desired outcomes. We favor this approach to developing logistic paradigms because of the discipline it imposes upon the

researcher. Even if the problem of providing the best arrangements for achieving intended outcomes did not become machine-soluble, the exercise of stipulating, variable by variable, the outcomes desired, the eveluation criteria, and the range of antecedents and consequents in discrete, quantified terms, should produce a much more detailed and operational understanding of supervision and team teaching than presently exists. In effect, in this context the principal problem we urge for study asks which classes of behavior, which salient characteristics, and which vital data about the situation and the personnel constitute a minimum basis opon which logistic decisions can be made which result in successful predictions with greater than chance probability.

412. Recommendation: Programs incorporating practicums in supervision and teaching should be adequately staffed so that participation in practicums, instead of representing the students' major commitment of time and energy, would occur only when it seemed indicated in reference to explicit problems being studied in professional seminars and the chance that laboratory investigations would help to catalyze learnings being stressed.

413. Hypothesis: If practicums in teaching and in supervision were used only for the explicit purpose of generating problems, demonstrating techniques, rehearsing new technical learnings and providing data required for treatment of empirical or experimental questions, they would constitute a considerably smaller fraction of the students' time than they have traditionally at Harvard-Lexington.

414. Problem: Because certain supervisory problems only arise in conjunction with intense, long-term supervisory relationships, the question of how much practicum should be offered in comparison to seminar time is not an easy one to decide. In any event, however, if extensive involvement in practicums were required in order to generate specific problems for study, such involvement should be explicitly planned for that reason rather than to follow automatically from an arbitrary program schedule.

415. Hypothesis: The existence of esoteric and/or unusually complex curriculums for the pupils create unnecessary and inordinate stresses for teaching students in programs like Harvard-Lexington, particularly where the major foci are upon team teaching and process education, not upon the curriculums (e.g., in modern mathematics) themselves.

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums (Continued.)

416. Hypothesis: Esoteric curriculums have the special advantage of not comprising intellectual and practitional habits that must be unlearned in order for new approaches, e.g., in process education, to be learned.

417. Problem: Should practicums be realistic in the sense of simulating prevalent professional conditions which may be poor, or ideal in the sense of providing laboratories for professional development that are free from the inadequacies of prevalent practice?

418. Hypothesis: Students will invest more energy and will receive more profit from programs they have had some share in planning than in programs completely designed by the faculty.

419. Recommendation: Encourage students to commit themselves early to certain goals in the program and make them responsible for specifying a sequence of activities through which it would be appropriate for them to move and indications of how they would want to enlist the assistance of specific members of the faculty.

420. Hypothesis: It operates against uninhibited participation in teaching and supervision practicums for teachers to be assigned to the same working groups as other teachers from their home school system.

421. Hypothesis: One implicit motive shared by school administrators who send teachers to programs like Harvard-Lexington, as well as of some of the teachers themselves, is for them to learn more effective means of working collaboratively that can be put to work in team relationships, subsequently, at home.

422. Recommendation: The question of whether or not to pair teaching students from the same location should be left open and should be determined on the basis of their expressed desires.

423. Hypothesis: If they are asked, teachers are likely not to express discomfort in connection to the prospect of working with fellow teachers from the same community because of embarrassment that might be associated with taking such a position.

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums (Continued.)

424. Recommendation: Organize a practicum team in which all planning, teaching and supervision are directed by an observation team leader, i.e., by a person whose specialty is in clinical supervision, rather than a team in which the existence of two leaders and separate lines of authority is likely to give rise to schisms and conflicts among the students.

425. Recommendation: Make students' evaluation criteria more comprehensible and clarify relationships between seminar and practicum grades more convincingly.

426. Hypothesis: Students generally did not understand the meaning of the evaluation criteria that were presented to them, nor did they trust the statement that their practicum and seminar grades would be rendered separately, largely because they could not believe that their instructors would be able to make such separations in their own thinking about them.

427. Proposition: Because analysis of their own professional behavior is threatening to many students and inasmuch as the instructors are not clinically equipped to treat resulting anxiety or to provide extensive psychological safeguards, the practice of analyzing demonstrations of technical behavior by faculty members represents a more acceptable initial strategy than that of engaging students in a fully functioning practicum from the outset. Even though teaching students presumably enter training programs with the understanding that they will be involved in a practicum and that their professional behavior will be examined, it is generally a safe prediction that most of them will never have experienced detailed analyses of their teaching and will be surprised by that practice then they encounter it.

428. Hypothesis: One measure to avoid breeches of confidentiality in connection to strategy sessions from which the observed teacher is excluded is to set ethics and the study of ethical systems as an explicit problem in the program rather than to institute rules of confidentiality that may seem ritualistic.

429. Recommendation: Employ a sociologist in programs like Harvard-Lexington to authenticate the "class-struggles" suggested by our experience and asserted in this writing.

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums (Continued.)

430. Hypothesis: Supervision students should be superordinated in practicums like those of Harvard Lexington first, in order to approximate professional realities and second, as a means of institutionalizing their right to function in observational, analytical and supervisory roles.

431. Antithesis: Supervision and teaching students should be equiordinated in order not to encumber professional problems with unnecessary disparities in social and organizational status.

432. Problem: Is it possible to develop extrahierarchical supervisory positions, or will implicit hierarchies continue to exist whether or not they are formally institutionalized?

433. Hypothesis: An effect of establishing superordinated roles for supervision students in supervision/teaching practicums is to dull the teaching students' initiative for maintaining supervision and for using it productively. They tend to feel, under the circumstances, "If the supervisors (bosses) are responsible for supervision, let them worry about directing it."

434. Recommendation: Develop means for collecting longitudinal data on the professional development of students having participated in seminars and practicums in supervision.

435. Hypothesis: If instruction is individualized more teaching and supervision students will encounter success (in either their own or in objective terms) than if it is not.

436. Hypothesis: Evasions of supervision by teaching students will not generally have productive outcomes unless the faculty is geared to accept them.

437. Recommendation: Practicum schedules should be developed (in the case of Harvard-Lexington, revamped) that provide protected time for faculty personnel to be in professional communication with one another. Experience suggests that schedules that provided more free time and time for students to engage in academic discussion than generally existed at Harvard-Lexington would enhance morale and increase learning.

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums (Continued.)

If individualization represents an instructional ideal, then any schedule that requires groups of people to be in specified places at specified times will incorporate some disadvantages. Nevertheless, we recommend that typical days begin with a period of time devoted to discussion that is ample to re-establish problematical issues and to invent and reconsider strategies while the students and faculty are still refreshed. If children were in classrooms for two hours, or so, in mid-morning, that might suffice to provide opportunities for laboratory study by teaching and supervision students. During that period and beforehand, faculty team leaders could meet when their presence was not required by the students or when the students were not involved in business. In the afternoons, short lectures, discussion groups, and planning-supervision time should be scheduled at an unhurried pace, an outcome that would be promoted by lessening the number of hours that students generally taught and by relieving them of overall responsibility for conducting school which could be assumed by teachers hired for that purpose or, to eliminate logistic problems of professional communication, counselors who might lead the children in camp-like activities when the teaching students were not instructing them. A final period, after the students leave each day, might be set aside for faculty consultations. In general, we prescribe a slower pace, a less intense participation in the business of keeping school, a more academic and inquiry-oriented, and a less vocational program than has existed in the past.

438. Hypotheses and Recommendations: The practice of circulating from subteam to subteam, where entries and exits are made while sessions are in progress, should be avoided by members of the practicum faculty because (1) sporadic appearances operate against adequate understanding of issues under consideration inasmuch as sequences of discussion are audited out of context; (2) the need to recapitulate events for the instructor tends to inhibit students from developing complex issues; (3) students tend to resent active interventions by people who have not been present throughout meetings because of the redundancies that such interventions often create and because of a feeling that the interloper has not earned his right to participate by having labored as the other members have; and (4) to be essentially unconnected to any particular group of students can create frustrations for the instructor because of an absence of rewards that are generally associated with being identified with some stable group of students as they attempt to master certain learnings.

439. Hypothesis: Both instructors and students tend to experience heightened satisfactions in ongoing (stable) relationships with each other.

Organization of Teaching/Supervision Practicums (Continued.)

440. Hypothesis: Particularly if members of the seminar faculty were to participate actively in the direction of practicums, the practicums might serve as their own source of ideas in programs of teacher-supervisor education.

441. Hypothesis: Lectures in such programs tend often to be remote, seemingly disconnected to problems of the practicum, and of little general utility to teaching/supervision students.

442. Problem: Whereas the existence of *a priori* principal goals is generally regarded as a *sine qua non* of orthodox research-and-development models, it is sometimes necessary or appropriate to formulate goals *en route* as such programs unfold. Conceptual models are required in connection to practicums in teacher-supervisor education that schematize relationships between *a priori* goals and emerging ones and create a conceptual machinery that simultaneously preserves fundamental structures and provides means for integrating new objectives systematically. Our experience suggests that development which relies wholly upon emerging goals comprises psychological as well as formal disadvantages, viz., that *a priori* goals seem to be required for participants to feel secure in their operations and without such goals development and research in such practicums have not usually been orderly or profitable.

443. Problem: Although programs like Harvard-Lexington serve instructional purposes primarily and are not, essentially, research oriented, it might nevertheless be profitable to consider means for capturing data generated in such programs and for conducting controlled investigations in them that could avoid wasting good ideas that occur and are subsequently lost and could provide opportunities for extending thinking generally in the field of teacher and supervisor education. An approach that would permit the instructional orientation to continue but which would bring some formalism to such programs might be, simply, for the faculties to think in advance, and while programs are in progress, about setting explicit goals; developing eclectic, operational strategies for implementing them; and keeping track by means of case study of what was attempted and what happened.

444. Proposition: Although certain questions in clinical supervision are presently congenial to experimental study, there is still a requirement to develop more efficient methods and paradigms for examining clinical data (case materials). The likelihood of expanding basic

knowledge in supervision generally seems better in connection to developing such paradigms than in connection to attempting to develop foolproof experimental research for the time being.

Patterns of Behavior in Supervisory Analysis See, "Biases in Observation and Supervision."

445. Hypothesis: More patterns are likely to be discovered in any given teaching performance by neophyte supervisors whose observations have not become stereotyped by professional practice.

446. Antithesis: More patterns are likely to be discovered in any given teaching performance by seasoned supervisors whose observational acuity has been sharpened by practice and who have larger repertories of interpretive constructs available to them than neophytes do.

447. Hypothesis: Rather than expanding a supervisor's range of percepts, habitual use of observational inventories tends to stereotype perceptions and to operate against the occurrence of novel percepts.

448. Hypothesis: Unspecificity in connection to observing, identifying, and describing patterns of teaching leads to positive and negative halo effects around the teaching in question.

449. Hypothesis: Students tend to offer single rather than plural interpretations for any given pattern of teaching.

450. Recommendation: Set as a problem for supervision and teaching students, "What patterns of teaching behavior are most likely to be conducive to self-initiated learning by the pupils?"

Phenomenological Research in Supervision See, "Counseling and Supervision" and "Feedback."

451. Recommendation: Test supervisors' and teachers' inferences about cognitive and emotional behavior, especially in connection to outcomes that are supposed to result as effects of teaching or super-

vision, against teachers' and pupils' own reports of cognitive and emotional experience. Develop instruments and interview procedures for this purpose.

452. Research: Research methods should be designed for phenomenological study of teachers' professional self-concepts; "self-as-teacher." A basic question for clinical supervision is of whether the professional self can emerge as an independent and modifiable structure or whether it is necessarily coextensive with the fundamental self-concept. Theroretical clarifications of this problem should precede the formulation of systematic treatment approaches. Concomitant questions are, if professional self is separable from the general self-concept, at what levels, in what manner and in conjunction with what kinds of treatment strategies can it be modified in supervision? If professional self and self-concept are coextensive and if teaching behavior requires modification toward some objective standard, then what implications exist for supervisory treatment, for whether or not supervisors (rather than counselors) should treat, and for what alternatives, short of therapeutic treatment, exist for supervision?

453. Both in relationship to evaluation of learning outcomes for teaching purposes and to those of supervision, viz., insofar as evaluation of supervision may be contingent upon evaluation of learning outcomes, efficient and comprehensive methods must be developed for collecting feedback from pupils. Feedback is required particularly in connection to questions concerning the existence of incidental learnings in association with any given teaching performance. One approach to be considered consists of interviewing pupils in order to elicit their descriptions of cognitive experiences that accompanied teaching. Because pupils are likely to lack vocabularies of descriptive terms for such experiences, we recommend a twofold approach: on the basis of interviews with pupils, conducted in future programs, develop, empirically, a collection of terms that children employ to describe cognitive phenomena; on the basis of these data, identify common descriptions, attempt to teach pupils new terminology, and, in effect, develop a specialized vocabulary of such descriptions that can be adopted by children for use in response to future interviews and instruments for collecting feedback of this kind.

454. Problem: If methods for collecting feedback from pupils require them to engage in introspection and involve them in dialogues concerning their phenomenological experiences, what implications might these practices have in relation to mental hygiene? Are there latent dangers in introspection and dialogues of this kind for children? If so, under what

Phenomenological Research in Supervision (Continued.)

conditions and at what developmental stages? Can adequate safeguards be incorporated into such practices? Do methods, e.g.,projective testing, currently exist for detecting undesirable side effects? Should research of this kind be undertaken by counselors rather than by teachers and supervisors? Would research of this kind by teachers damage effective teacher-pupil relationships that might have existed beforehand?

455. Problem: The problem of knowing students' expectations and goals is incorporated by the larger problem of developing methodologies for keeping apprised of the phenomenological impact and significance of participation in such programs and of the faculty's specific behaviors. To know how the program is being experienced, what its implications are for the students' concepts of and feelings about themselves in professional development, would empower the faculty to individualize its instruction and/or to teach for learnings that correspond to modal requirements more adequately than it has been able to do in the past.

456. Hypothesis: A useful technique for analyzing and planning teaching is to adopt the pupils' frames of reference in one's imagination to calculate what the effects of specific teaching behavior were or would be. In evaluating their own teaching, teaching students do not generally consider what the experience might have been like to be a pupil in their classes.

Process Goals See, "Inquiry in Teaching and Supervision."

457. Hypothesis: Process confrontations are an important element of teaching for process goals and in supervision. Being subjected to process confrontations by their teachers and supervisors, pupils and teachers will incorporate skills of self-analysis and will recognize behavioral idiosyncracies of which they had been previously unaware.

458. Hypothesis: To distinguish process goals from content goals generates a dichotomy and, consequently, an apparent conflict between them in the minds of many teaching and supervision students.

459. Recommendation: Stress interrelationships between content and process and the sense in which they represent vehicles for one another rather than distinctions between them.

Process Goals (Continued.)

460. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to believe that for teaching in which a premium is attached to spontaneous pupil behavior and self-initiated inquiry by pupils, detailed plans are not required and that, in fact, plans should be deliberately "vague."

461. Hypothesis: Inasmuch as teaching that is sensitive to process goals has, in effect, been expanded beyond the dimensions of teaching for content goals only, plans for such additionally complex teaching should be more complex and in finer detail than those for the simpler operation.

462. Problem: How can planning for teaching for process goals be appropriately complex, on the one hand, without becoming so fixed, *a priori*, as to inhibit spontaneity and self-initiated activity, on the other?

463. Problem: If plans for teaching in which spontaneous behavior is to be prominent cannot have the *a priori* detail of, for example, a lecture, what kinds of detail might such plans incorporate?

464. Proposition: Plans for teaching for process goals should be detailed in reference (1) to anticipated spontaneous behaviors, e.g., questions that are likely to arise; (2) intended outcomes stated in both cognitive and behavioral terms; (3) procedures to be employed for implementing intended outcomes; e.g., logistic organization, *key* questions, and key directions -- verbatim; and (4) transitions to be developed to and from other lessons.

465. Hypothesis: Primarily because they were introduced at a definitional level, students at Harvard-Lexington (and many members of the faculty) did not construe process goals in operational terms. Consequently, when the time came to teach for process goals and to evaluate such teaching in the practicum, most students met with considerable frustration and previous illusions of understanding were shattered. By "operational terms" we refer to explicit strategies for planning, teaching, and evaluation and evaluation criteria, stated in behavioral terms, in reference to which teaching for process goals can be analyzed.

466. Recommendation: Set *operational* understanding of process goals as a problem for study in the summer school.

Process Goals (Continued.)

467. Recommendation: Instead of beginning with definitions, establish process goals inductively by examining teaching, analyzing it, discovering the existence or absence of manifest learnings not directly related to content, and establish empirically and logically whether such outcomes were deliberately planned or not by the teacher.

468. Hypothesis: Tests of content do not generally reflect achievement or non-achievement of process goals.

469. Hypothesis: Despite its additional complexities, teaching and supervision which aim for process goals are ultimately more economical than teaching and supervision which do not because in conjunction with achieving process goals, substantive material is learned more thoroughly and more significantly.

470. Hypothesis: Supervision that is concerned with establishing whether process goals have been achieved in teaching operates under a special disadvantage inasmuch as, by contrast to mastery of substantive information, process goals cannot be tested for easily and directly. A consequence is that such supervision is not likely to seem as concretely productive, as objective and as immediately useful to teaching students as supervision related to measurable learning outcomes.

471. Hypothesis: Operational definitions of process learnings and of teaching for process goals are required if clinical supervision concerned with process education is to seem concrete enough to satisfy teaching students' needs for palpable assistance.

472. Hypothesis: Teaching students typically confuse process and content with the effect that they often consider problems in the latter category when they believe they are examining issues in the former.

473. Proposition: A useful device for achieving process goals in teaching consists of interspersing lessons on content with lessons in which the processes having occurred in conjunction with learning are treated as content.

474. Hypothesis: When study of teaching and planning for process goals reaches levels of complexity that are too difficult, or which seem to

be too difficult for the students to comprehend, they tend to react by addressing content goals when, ostensibly, process goals are being considered.

475. Problem: Research on the logical and conceptual structure of the various academic disciplines is required, in addition to cognitive research, in order for decisions concerning whether any particular content is better suited than any other content for teaching certain intellectual processes to be made confidently.

Professional Identity See, "Role Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching" and "Students' Self-Perceptions."

476. Recommendation: Set "Professional Identity" and professional role development as explicit problems in supervision/teaching practicums.

477. Recommendation: Besides defining professional responsibilities, professional immunities and the limits of professional responsibility should be set as a problem for supervision students and should be broached early in future programs. More generally, the question of professional "involvement" should be set for explicit study.

Projecting Images of Supervision See, "Folklore" and "Supervisory Mystique."

478. Hypothesis: Double entendres in the specialized vocabularies of clinical supervision give rise to unintended connotations which operate against professional success.

479. Hypothesis: As an instance of problematical double entendres, teaching students tend to regard "problems" of teaching as being equivalent in meaning to "things wrong with teaching," having not become accustomed to the existence of problems that are not intrinsically undesirable. To speak of supervision for the sake of analyzing the inherent "problems" in any given teaching performance, therefore, occasionally results in connotations that make supervision appear to be an essentially fault-finding enterprise.

Projecting Images of Supervision (Continued.)

480. Hypothesis: If they share the supervisor's meaning, the notion of inherent problems in all teaching and of supervision committed to studying and clarifying such problems are comforting to teachers, partly because productive roles are thereby created for them in supervisory analysis.

481. Hypothesis: When supervisors project an image of clinical detachment and exclusively analytical concern, subsequent attempts to be humane, to be responsive to emotional requirements, and to be unclinical tend to be mistrusted.

482. Hypothesis: Amateur psychologizing by supervision students may not only result in damage to their supervisees, but may also alienate teaching students who are functioning in an observational role from the prospect of being supervised in the future; i.e., the practice may engender fears that everyone, in turn, will be subject to the practice.

483. Recommendation: Amateur psychologizing should constitute one area of conduct in which it is appropriate for a member of the faculty to intervene directly.

484. Hypothesis: By such direct interventions, the faculty will inspire trust among the students that it means what it says in relation to maintaining protections in this connection.

485. Hypothesis: The professed aim of clinical supervision to "modify teaching behavior" carries the implication (for teachers) that supervisors expect to encounter teaching that does not satisfy them.

486. Recommendation: Clinical supervision should be purged of terminology that has proven to create mistaken impressions in the past and should be examined generally in this regard.

487. Hypothesis: The clinical supervisor's outlook is a generally pessimistic one (teaching behavior must be modified; protections must be established; etc.) and his pessimism is generally communicated to the teachers he supervises.

Projecting Images of Supervision (Continued.)

488. Hypothesis: The faculty's outlook on supervision has generally been pessimistic and has communicated pessimism to supervision and to teaching students.

Propositions from Clinical Supervision

489. Hypothesis: Supervisors' use of gratuitous (rhetorical, ritual) questions will generally result in incidental learnings that operate against supervision, e.g., a cynicism regarding questions generally, distrust of the supervisor's straightforwardness, and feelings of being manipulated.

490. Hypothesis: To flatter teachers will not necessarily convey a feeling of basic acceptance and, on the contrary, is likely to produce an opposite effect, particularly if the flattery is transparent to the supervisee.

491. Hypothesis: Feelings of hostility toward supervisees that supervisors do not recognize are likely to be communicated by their subtle behavior and to operate against the supervisee's feeling of being accepted.

492. Hypothesis: One psychological prerequisite for practicing supervision that communicates the existence of basic acceptance to supervisees is for supervisors to be able to recognize and admit their own hostile feelings that develop in supervision in order to judge whether they are capable of working such feelings through or whether supervision should be terminated.

493. Hypothesis: A feeling of being personally accepted by the supervisor represents a reservoir of morale that helps to sustain the teacher's investment as he deals with emotionally troublesome features of his work in supervision.

494. Proposition: Supervision should aim at the establishment of intrinsic rewards, i.e., rewards deriving from professional behavior in conjunction with objective self-evaluation by teachers, in increasing proportions as it progresses. (See, "Rewards in Supervision.")

Propositions from Clinical Supervision (Continued.)

495. Proposition: It represents better practice to have supervisees engage in summaries, recapitulations, explanations, restatements and expansion of issues, questions, findings, interpretations, and strategies formulated by the supervisor than for the supervisor to do so himself for two reasons: (1) it provides an opportunity to test whether the supervisee has assimilated ideas the supervisor wanted him to and (2) it provides a potentially rewarding opportunity for the supervisee to demonstrate his command over the concepts in question or to achieve greater command over them, should his understanding prove to be incomplete or distorted.

496. Proposition: It represents good practice for supervisees to state strategies that have been developed for future teaching themselves rather than for the supervisor to do so because, among other advantages, it provides an opportunity for the supervisee to rehearse his thinking and, sometimes, his behavior before the next sequence of teaching.

497. Hypothesis: The practice of requiring supervisees to verbalize summations, etc., will antagonize them if it appears to be ritualistic or if they feel it implies distrust of their abilities to understand.

498. Hypothesis: Teaching whose objectives are stated in terms of behavioral outcomes as well as in congitive ones can be more readily and more securely evaluated by both teachers and learners than teaching whose intended outcomes were construed exclusively in cognitive terms.

499. Proposition: Technical assistance to supervisees and their technical improvement, should not be at the expense of personal dignity and should not require infringements upon their personal dignity.

500. Hypothesis: Supervisors should not intervene during teaching because to do so will undermine the pupils' confidence in the teacher.

501. Antithesis: Supervisors should intervene into teaching when to do so protects the teacher from perpetrating errors that would later be regretted.

502. Hypothesis: Supervision should treat discernable patterns of

teaching behavior rather than isolated or atypical behavioral events because that which is most characteristic and salient in teaching behavior is most likely to produce important cumulative effects among the learners.

503. Problem: Despite the currency that the "strengths-weaknesses" dichotomy has had in clinical supervision, neither theoretical nor operational definitions of strengths or weaknesses in teaching have been systematically formulated. Although a large intuitive component operated whenever plusses and minuses were assigned, some relatively articulate criteria and statable principles operated as well. A short summary of them follows:

a. Strengths and weaknesses are to be determined in reference to the teacher's intent, generally as it has been expressed, *a priori*, in terms of intended outcomes (goals).

b. Achievement of intended outcomes will be assessed in reference to pupil behavior, insofar as cognitive outcomes can be inferred from overt behavior.

c. Relationships between teacher and pupil behavior as each other's causes and effects, will be developed logically in connection to observable antecedents and consequents and interactions that occur in the sequence of teaching.

d. Besides being determined in reference to pupil behavior, the significance of teaching patterns and, in that connection, their evaluation, will be determined in reference to theoretical knowledge, especially when relevant data on cognitive outcomes are absent, i.e., in the absence of behavioral data, certain consequences of teaching can be postulated on the basis of predictions that are supportable by existing theory.

e. Achievements of intended outcomes must also be determined in reference to data that suggest the existence of incidental learnings that either supported, opposed or were irrelevant to intended ones.

Operational criteria and dialectical examination of what represents strengths and weaknesses in teaching must be developed more fully and more explicitly in supervision. Supervisors are especially unadept at evaluating process goals in teaching.

509. Hypothesis: Issues chosen by supervisors to be treated in analysis

conferences should be salient, predictably modifiable, and few in number. Trivial issues cause teachers to lose confidence in supervision; issues that are too psychologically difficult to broach or to manage can evoke strong defensiveness in or defensive withdrawal from supervision; and the inclusion of too many issues can create emotional or conceptual saturation while to deal with fewer of the same issues might enable effective assimilation and psychological work.

505. Hypothesis: An advantage in using specific data rather than general descriptions of teaching behavior is that supervisees are more likely to recognize and less likely to dispute verbatim material and interpretations of its significance than supervisors' impressions which may not seem realistic or valid.

506. Hypothesis: It is less productive generally for supervisors to tell teachers what they were thinking or feeling than it is to have the teachers do so themselves. Besides risking being wrong, supervisors may evoke resentment and feelings that they are presumptuous, when they tell teachers "what you really had in mind; what you were really doing; what you really meant to say."

507. Hypothesis: General questions of teachers' professional competency are appropriate to consider in reference to their professional self-concepts and to more specific intellectual, technical and emotional factors that seem to influence their observed teaching behavior. To take such behavior out of the general context of professional competency is likely to invalidate supervisory interpretations and treatment strategies.

508. Hypothesis: Formal characteristics of the instructors' teaching will be reflected in the structure of the students' learning.

Protections in Supervision See, "Group Supervision" and "Propositions from Clinical Supervision."

509. Hypothesis: Whether or not group supervision is experienced as "protective" supervision or not, by supervisees, depends upon the clinical competencies of the supervisors. Neophyte supervision students are generally less likely to convey feelings of protection than advanced students.

Psychological Issues in Supervision See, "Counseling and Supervision" and "Emotional Determinants in Supervision."

510. Hypothesis: Teachers often introduce psychological issues into supervision with which their supervisors are incompetent to deal systematically.

511. Problem: Without clinical skills that represent psychological protections to supervisees, supervisors should not deal with the emotional underpinnings of teaching behavior directly. It follows that to deal at the motivational level, i.e., in terms of underlying motives, is not appropriate supervisory behavior, especially when behaviors and motives become related in symbolic terms. It has seemed appropriate, however, and indeed has generally been a principal objective of clinical supervision to help (or force) teachers to enunciate their rationales and to bring implicit assumptions and biases to the surface in articulate forms. A problem exists in relation to circumstances in which such assumptions and reasons are, in effect, motives and where, as it occasionally happens, the teacher introduces symbolic material, explicit symbolic connections and characterological constructs himself. It is not appropriate for supervisors to deal with such issues even when teachers introduce them, because irrespective of their origins, supervisors are not clinically competent to deal with them systematically.

512. Recommendation: A part of training teachers to perform productively in supervision should be to identify the issue of psychological material and to develop some of the implications of how its introduction into supervision creates certain problems for both the supervisor and the teacher. Counselors should be on hand to deal with such problems when they arise and to advise supervisors how to manage them, should they seem appropriate for supervisory treatment.

Pupil Behavior as Feedback and Reinforcement.

513. Hypothesis: Some patterns of teaching behavior tend to be reinforced and some tend to be extinguished by responsive pupil behavior.

514. Hypothesis: One category of teaching students is represented by teachers whose teaching is unresponsive (i.e., does not change in response) to spontaneous pupil behavior and which remains committed to *a priori* plans irrespective of emerging factors.

Pupil Behavior as Feedback and Reinforcement (Continued.)

515. Hypothesis: One attribute of successful teaching for process goals is its responsiveness and adaptability to ideas and issues initiated by the learners.

516. Hypothesis: A useful analytical gambit is to imagine the pupils' behavior as effects and to analyze the teacher's behavior for causes, and vice-versa.

517. Hypothesis: One reason for including pupil behavior in observation notes is that such behavior often reinforces patterns of teaching that are relevant in supervision.

518. Hypothesis: Supervision students do not generally consider pupil behavior vis-a-vis its reinforcement of teaching behavior although they do attend often to reinforcements in the opposite direction.

Questions and Answers in Supervision and Teaching See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers" and "Reliance upon "Authoritative" Sources."

519. Hypothesis: Most teachers believe that supervisors should not identify weaknesses in their teaching unless they are prepared to demonstrate or, in some other manner, provide more favorable methods (goals, techniques, approaches, procedures).

520. Hypothesis: Students of teaching and of supervision tend to believe that their professors know the answers to professional (theoretical and technical) questions they confront in their practicums.

521. Hypothesis: Students of teaching and of supervision tend to manifest a strong dependency upon "authoritative sources" for solutions to professional (technical and theoretical) problems.

522. Hypothesis: Students of teaching and of supervision tend to believe that answers to theoretical and technical questions in education exist in the literature, if not in their professors' personal knowledge.

523. Question: Can general conditions be defined (or general principles) in reference to which it is appropriate for supervisors to provide

Questions and Answers in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

answers, give advice and develop plans (lesson plans) for teachers?

524. Hypothesis: When too many questions exist in teaching and when existing questions have not been selected qualitatively, i.e., when principles of qualitative selection are not in force, then questions take on an inflationary value and become less intrinsically worthwhile to the learners -- even good questions.

525. Hypothesis: When questions become inflationary, they lead first to aimless guessing and eventually to docility.

526. Hypothesis: Teaching and supervision students tend to believe that questioning is a non-directive technique, not realizing that generally questions force answers and, consequently, are highly directive.

Reifications in Supervision and Teaching

527. Hypothesis: Concentration upon operational models of teaching and supervision, rather than upon general, theoretical and abstract models, helps to avoid students' tendencies to reify certain professional constructs in these fields.

528. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students tend to employ professional constructs which apply to operational phenomena but which are not understood operationally, e.g., "rapport, support, acceptance, anxiety, process learnings," and which generally represent reifications.

529. Recommendation: Constructs that tend to become reified and that pertain to technical professional behaviors should be taught (and examined continuously) in operational terms.

Reliance upon "Authoritative" Sources

See, "Questions and Answers in Supervision and Teaching."

530. Hypothesis: Teachers and supervisors tend to rely upon authoritative

Reliance upon "Authoritative" Sources (Continued.)

sources for definitive principles and professional information and frequently appeal to authority in connection to professional problems.

531. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students tend not to question "truths" that are reported to them as "findings" of psychology, or of other disciplines (social sciences and behavioral sciences) in which they are not fluent.

532. Hypothesis: Particularly in the initial phases of supervisory training, it is more customary for students to accept rationales posited for supervision than to question them (i.e., to examine them).

Resistance to Supervision See,"Defensiveness."

533. Hypothesis: Clinical supervision has not found effective ways for dealing with overt or implicit antagonism.

534. Hypothesis: One reason that clinical supervisors have not found successful strategies for dealing with antagonistic behavior is that their image of antagonism (hostility) has been too global, their characterizations too generalized. Differented understanding of common elements in supervision that threaten teachers and anger them could yield more precise and effective means for coping with hostility. As it is, supervisors generally tend with withdraw from hostile teachers or to react to them emotionally or in keeping with social conventions for handling hostility rather than according to specialized strategies designed to achieve success in supervision.

535. Hypothesis: Some supervisees tend to "test the limits" in new supervisory relationships by expressing attitudes, ideas, practices, etc., that require consensus from the supervisor. The test, in effect, is of whether the supervisor will withdraw or whether he will remain committed to supervision when the teacher exposes aspects of his own behavior that he supposes will be distasteful to the supervisor.

536. Hypothesis: Antagonism toward supervision is likely to become expressed by distortion (subversion) of teaching strategies recommended by supervisors.

Resistance to Supervision (Continued.)

537. Hypothesis: Hostility toward supervisors is often expressed in the notion that, if they are really knowledgeable, they should demonstrate ideal conditions in classroom teaching performances.

Rewards in Supervision See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers; Dependencies in Supervision" and "Propositions from Clinical Supervision."

538. Hypothesis: Reflexive evaluations based upon objective data and in reference to goals set by the teacher are more rewarding ultimately than evaluations by supervisors, especially in reference to goals that they have set.

539. Hypothesis: Teachers who tend naturally to be self-analytical accept the responsibilities of and gain more satisfaction from professional self-evaluation than teachers who have learned to depend upon other people for evaluations of their work.

540. Hypothesis: One attraction to teachers of supervision performed by supervisors in whom they have confidence is that such supervision provides a unique source of adult rewards. Particularly in connection to group supervision, such teachers will feel flattered by the attention they receive from their supervisors and will interpret it an an expression of interest and concern.

541. Hypothesis: Teachers will tend to appreciate obvious attempts by supervisors to be completely sure that they understand what the teachers are saying (meaning, implying, intending).

542. Hypothesis: To cite patterns of strength in teaching that the teacher did not explicitly intend or of which he was not consciously aware can, instead of being rewarding, frustrate the teacher by making him feel that he does not command adequate control over his professional behavior and that strengths are only likely to be fortuitous. In short, to discover that one has done the right thing inadvertently is not very rewarding.

543. Hypothesis: Because the opposite of any condition is likely to be implied by the existence of the condition, supervisors who stress "having been pleased," are not potentially threatening to supervisees:

a supervisor capable of being pleased is also capable of being displeased; the supervisor who praises can also punish.

544. Proposition: One (partial) solution to the problem of how to avoid rewards that imply punishments while utilizing supervision as a source of professional rewards is to equip teachers with skills for self-evaluation and to encourage that practice among them.

545. Problem: Whereas students' willingness to try new things and to run risks may be heightened by the practice of helping them to achieve success in their own terms initially, when the practices in which they are successful are at cross purposes to skills and concepts that the instructor means to teach eventually, to reinforce them may be self-defeating and may lead to charges of inconsistency later on.

Role-Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers; Advice-Giving in Supervision; Counceling and Supervision; Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision" and "Vocational, Activistic and Pragmatic Orientations."

546. Hypothesis: Supervision students generally believe that "non-directive" supervision is more humane and will be experienced as less punishing by supervisees than "directive" supervision.

547. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to associate "non-directive" supervision with behavior that is informal, indecisive, and democratic and with the tendency to use questioning as the principal mode of supervisory intervention during conferences.

548. Hypothesis: To ask the supervisee questions seems generally, to supervisors, to represent a less directive technique than that of making statements, e.g., offering descriptions, examples, information or interpretations.

549. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to use questions as substitutes for statements.

550. Proposition: Questioning represents a highly directive mode of

verbal communication.

551. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to believe that they are likely to do psychological damage to teachers whose teaching seems basically weak and/or who manifest a high degree of anxiety or defensiveness in supervision.

552. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to manifest a vocational orientation rather than an academic one.

553. Hypothesis: Teachers are more generally concerned with operational problems than with theoretical ones.

554. Hypothesis: Teachers place a high priority on finding pragmatic solutions.

555. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to assume that asking the pupils a great many questions and encouraging the pupils, in turn, to ask questions is a *sine qua non* of teaching that achieves the process goal "self-initiated inquiry."

556. Antithesis: Inflationary questioning by teachers or pupils interferes with focused inquiry.

557. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to believe that their supervisors conceive their own role as one in which they "find fault" with teaching.

558. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to feel that supervision will be superficial unless it identifies weaknesses in the observed teaching. Consequently, supervisors sometimes create "false negatives" which consist of picayune issues that have been magnified for purposes of supervisory analysis.

559. Hypothesis: Despite their occasional disclaimers, viz., that they expect programs like Harvard-Lexington to engage them in new professional inquiries, most (experienced) teaching students implicitly believe that the instructors in such programs will actually confirm

professional assumptions and practices that they have valued in the past.

560. Hypothesis: The practice of not giving advice that teachers ask for will tend to make supervisors seem to be rejecting such teachers, i.e., by not caring enough about them nor considering their wants important enough to provide what they are requesting.

561. Hypothesis: The practice of not providing specific assistance will be interpreted as rejection by most teachers.

562. Hypothesis: The practices of not providing specific assistance and of not giving advice that is requested will be experienced as votes of confidence and will, consequently, be supportive for some teachers. This outcome is most likely if the supervisor states, explicitly, his confidence in the teacher's ability to manage the problems at hand and if his confidence is well founded.

563. Hypothesis: If disparities between the teacher's level of self-confidence and the level of confidence that the supervisor invests are too great, the teacher, rather than feeling supported, will feel that his supervisor does not understand him or does not appreciate the significance of his concerns and will, consequently, become alienated from the supervision.

564. Recommendation: Set the problem of how to be supportive in clinical supervision as one for explicit study by supervision and teaching students.

565. Hypothesis: Supervisors' attempts to be supportive and their beliefs that they have provided support to teachers do not necessarily correspond to the teachers' experiences and feelings in the supervisory relationship.

566. Proposition: Among teachers who tend to make productive use of supervision, the most likely means for determining what they will experience as supportive supervisory behavior is to ask them directly.

Role-Perception in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

567. Problem: Can general models of supportive supervision be developed?

568. Problem: Can treatment paradigms from counseling be adapted to general models of supportive behavior in supervision?

569. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to expect supervisors to be advice-givers.

570. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to believe that insofar as their teaching constitutes a practicum (laboratory) for the supervision students, they are only regarded instrumentally by their supervisors and are not thought to be important in their own right.

571. Hypothesis: Supervision students' views of their potential effectiveness in improving teaching tend to be exaggerated.

572. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to react to criticisms, disagreements, and conceptual contributions by supervision students and by members of the faculty as though they carried implicit mandates.

573. Hypothesis: Teaching students do not react to criticisms, etc., by their fellow teaching students as though mandates were implied.

574. Hypothesis: Despite repeated disclaimers, teaching students continue to doubt that supervisors and instructors consider themselves to be equipotential with them in intellectual competition.

575. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to believe that teachers are responsible for "motivating pupils to learn."

576. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to believe that the most important measure of successful teaching is that the teacher "gets it across," viz., the substantive content of his lesson.

577. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to attribute responsibility for

Role-Perception in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

initiating learning to teachers.

578. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to feel that their supervisors' and instructors' best means for demonstrating good will is to engage in teaching themselves.

579. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students do not often think explicitly of parallelisms that may exist between each other's practices. One result is that supervisors engage in methods that they disapprove in teaching and teaching students think of supervision as an alien practice rather than as a familiar one.

580. Hypothesis: Teaching students were generally unhappy because they perceived that the supervision students had an "easier berth" in the program; i.e., they (the supervision students) did not have nightly planning to execute nor responsibilities for classroom teaching.

581. Hypothesis: Teaching students frequently regard their supervisors as pedants and time-wasters and regard fellow students who are intellectually oriented and have appetites for abstract and theoretical inquiry in the same manner.

582. Hypothesis: Teaching students in supervisory roles tend to believe that they are being evaluated, somehow, in connection with the quality of their observation notes.

583. Hypothesis: The practice of depersonalized supervision can become stilted if it is employed constantly and without reference to whether it its employment is actually indicated. One result is to make clinical supervisors seem cold.

584. Hypothesis: Teachers who have become accustomed to dealing in personal terms or whose needs are such that only rewards of a personal nature are professionally satisfying, tend to distrust depersonalized supervision, to suspect that personal factors (i.e., social, emotional, and other subjective factors) are really operating and become distracted from supervisory issues by trying to read between the lines for clues relating to the supervisors' "true feelings."

Role-Perception in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

585. Hypothesis: Most teaching students believe that supervision students are not directly concerned with the pupils' welfare and that, in order to compensate for the supervisors' unconcern and to protect against the possibility that supervisory interests will be opposed to pupils' best interests, they must take special measures or some special set of roles must be created to protect the children.

586. Hypothesis: In connection with their general impression that supervisors lack professional concern for the pupils, teaching students think specifically of the integrity of the pupils' academic learning.

587. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to use their allegation that supervisors are unconcerned with the pupils as a justification for opposing supervision.

588. Hypothesis: If supervision conferences generally culminated in teaching plans, i.e., in both outline and detail of plans for subsequent teaching, the supervisors' interests in the pupils would become more apparent.

589. Hypothesis: Given the fact that analyses of teaching are almost always in reference to pupil behavior and pupils' learning, it seems unlikely that rational evidence, including the formulation of detailed teaching plans, would dispel prejudices to the effect that supervisors do not care about the children.

590. Hypothesis: Supervision and teaching students tend to believe that whereas it is generally inappropriate for supervisors to introduce value judgments without supporting data into supervision (because this can represent injustices to the supervisee), it is acceptable for supervisees to engage in such practice.

591. Hypothesis: An incidental learning resulting from this inconsistency is that, insofar as the supervisors give implicit license to supervisees' premature value judgments, their disclaimers against formulating them themselves are not to be trusted.

592. Proposition: One supervisory function should be to restrain teachers from perpetrating self-inflicted injustices.

593. Problem: Explore applicability of the "Repertory Test" by George Kelly and develop specialized forms of the Rep Test to assess students' perceptions of themselves in professional roles and the character of their salient role constructs.

594. Problem: Especially insofar as members of faculties in programs of supervisor education regard themselves as students of supervision and of supervisor education, it is often appropriate for their participation in such programs to be characterized by ongoing development and modification of their own roles. It seems true, however, that students and faculty alike feel more secure in their participation if some general map of role-specifications and role development exists from the beginning. It has been typical, at Harvard-Lexington, for members of the practicum faculty to be more systematic and precise in formulating their initial roles than their terminal ones, and some tendency has existed to be governed by the general expectation that as the students become more self-sufficient and autonomous, the initial faculty roles would become obsolete. When initial roles have, indeed, become outmoded, instructors have not generally moved into different roles that comprised appropriate new ways for them to operate. On the contrary, they have generally begun to perform assorted miscellaneous functions that tended to confuse the students and to frustrate the instructors.

595. Problem: Empirical research is required on what relationships exist between teachers' perceptions of roles in teacher-supervisor relationships and those involved in teacher-pupil relationships. If it were discovered, for example, that teachers tend to think of themselves in relationship to their supervisors as they think of their pupils in relationship to themselves, instruction might deliberately attempt to extinguish or to reinforce such expectations or to sharpen distinctions which might be crucial in reference to teachers' self-concepts and to the personal implications of supervision for them. Teaching students who place implicit priorities on pupil behavior designed to please them and who, in a parallel fashion, strive to please their supervisors, might be treated concurrently in both contexts of their experience in a manner that would be more potent than isolation and treatment of only one aspect of their outlook, e.g., in supervision.

596. Proposition: In programs of supervisor/teacher education, the observation/supervision function should operate as the academic organ of teaching practicums because of the natural associations between observation and analysis which are academic operations as well as professional ones.

Role-Perception in Supervision and Teaching (Continued.)

597. Hypothesis: To attribute a professorial function to supervision students, widens social and professional lacunae that already exist between them and the teaching students, and attaches onerous functions to their roles because of teaching students' existing difficulties in accepting professorial sanctions. In any instructional program, implicit opposition between teachers and students is likely to exist. It diminishes supervision students' benignity to identify them with the faculty for that reason.

Role-Play in Supervision See, "Instructional Strategies in Teaching/ Supervision Practicums."

598. Hypothesis: Role-Play is a particularly useful technique to employ with teachers who experience difficulty in dealing with abstract issues because of the manner in which it concretizes such issees.

599. Hypothesis: Role-play is useful in supervision because of the opportunities it provides for rehearsing teaching and supervisory strategies.

600. Hypothesis: Role-play is especially useful as a means for demonstrating which problems of teaching and of supervision are basically simple and which are complex.

601. Hypothesis: Role-play is useful in supervision for creating interludes in which the supervisee can relax. In this connection, tensions associated with feelings of inadequacy to master some technical device can be dissipated by means of engaging supervisors in role-plays of the teaching problem which generally demonstrate that they experience difficulties similar to the teacher's.

602. Hypothesis: It is diagnostically useful to have students exchange supervisor and supervisee roles because factors that are causing difficulties in one area that are obscure can sometimes be identified more readily in other sectors of behavior.

603. Hypothesis: It is didactically useful to have students switch supervisor-teacher roles. Such reversals can result in the relaxation of defenses that operate in one area, the development of deeper professional empathy, and a sharper understanding of problems that results from assuming different vantage points upon them.

"Round-Robin" Analyses See, "Social Factors in Supervision."

604. Problem: Is there a productive place for round-robin analyses, given their universal popularity among teaching and supervision students?

605. Hypothesis: Supervision students prefer round-robin analyses because, insofar as they are superficial, they seem to require more modest degrees of professional responsibility and competency than orthodox supervision conferences.

Safeguards in Supervision/Teaching Practicums

606. Hypothesis: Withdrawal from or avoidance of supervision generally results in loss of face in teaching/supervision practicums.

607. Recommendation: Unless the faculty is able to guarantee safeguards against emotional injury in supervision, it should provide for unstigmatized withdrawal from or non-acceptance of supervision.

608. Recommendation: Even when group supervision exists as the predominant method in supervision practicums because of its instructional advantages, one-to-one supervision should not be permitted to develop the character of "exceptional practice." For the teachers' sake, differences that imply special difficulties should be avoided whenever possible.

Self-Evaluation See, "Process Goals."

609. Hypothesis: It is especially relevant for professional screening and in relationship to screening in programs of supervisor education, to state the hypothesis that one psychological prerequisite for successful practice in clinical supervision is for supervisors to have a self-analytical set.

610. Hypothesis: Self-evaluation (self-analysis) can yield the most important rewards in professional activity and represents a fundamental element of professional autonomy.

611. Hypothesis: To teach professional constructs in operational terms should provide teachers with a more secure basis for self-

evaluation than teaching that is predominantly theoretical.

Sequences of Professional Learning See, "Technical Professional Learning."

612. Hypothesis: Development of roles and professional identity as educational supervisors and development of technical competencies incorporated by supervisory practice proceed according to genetic sequences.

613. Hypothesis: In rough terms, our experiences suggest that development as supervisors proceeds according to the following sequence generally:

> Phase 1. Supervisors employ many implicit value judgments, stereotypes and assumptions about teaching, means for modifying teaching behavior, and conventions that are appropriate to govern supervision and supervisory relationships. Thinking tends to be global, dichotomous and simple, i.e., questions relating to whether existing teaching practices are "good or bad" and how they should be changed are not complex, e.g., in relationship to psychological factors. There is little tendency to examine one's own behavior (perceptions, inferences, evaluations, premises, etc.,) analytically. Inferences are often taken for perceptions. Consequently, objective data are not as prominent in supervisory evaluations as generalized observations and descriptions and value-laden interpretations based upon screened or otherwise biased perceptions. In this respect, their thinking can be characterized as "syncretic." Supervisory behavior tends to be governed either by common social conventions or by conventions transposed from other professional relationships, e.g., administrative ones, and not by explicit, specialized conventions developed deliberately for supervision. Rationales for supervisory behavior tend generally not to be explicit nor to be explicated in the supervisory dialogue. Few, if any, techniques are employed for obtaining ongoing, systematic feedback from teachers which reflect their appraisals of supervision. Supervision proceeds on the basis of professional intuitions more often than in connection with explicit operational models or in conjunction with articulate techniques. Supervisors tend to be concerned primarily with whether they command the respect and affection of their supervisees and their morale depends largely upon their perceptions in this connection.

Phase 2. Operational-procedural orientation; concern with technical detail more prominent than with theoretical rationales; monolithic application of simple models rather than eclectic application of multiple models of supervision; rote applications; ritualism. Mechanical orientation does not incorporate system of constructs for interpreting observational data; assimilation and responsive use of feedback during supervision conferences not well developed; tendencies to persevere in *a priori* strategies regardless of feedback; tendency to assert own priotities and own issues over teachers' when differences exist; morale affected by question of whether or not technical competency (orthodoxy) is demonstrated in their performances; strong dependency upon instructors for evaluation; self-doubts concerned principally with whether technical mastery can be achieved; events of teaching not often related; patterns not synthesized nor seen in interrelationships.

Phase 3. Ascending concern for theoretical considerations; supervisory models examined in theoretical terms; inquiry begun into related disciplines for relevant interpretive constructs and rationales for practice; technical elements begin to be considered in relationship to theory; own behavior begins to be examined but not systematically; cause-effect becomes employed as principle for examining supervisory and teaching behaviors; significance of teaching behavior examined at higher level of complexity; over-generalizations begin to diminish in favor of detailed, multifaceted patterns; teaching patterns are seen more often to include strengths and weaknesses simultaneously; dichotomous constructs remain prevalent, however, because "unknowns" are not yet readily admitted; old biases and professional stereotypes tend to become replaced by new ones; supervisors begin to express desire to be supervised themselves; professional self-awareness at generally high level, sometimes immobilizes from action; morale issues concerned largely with how much there is to know and how impossible it seems to acquire necessary learnings; disheartenment accompanies increased appreciation of refractoriness of some behaviors to supervision, of tenacity of own behavioral patterns; feelings of overweening responsibility; threats constituted by responsibility for teachers' psychological well-being and guilt in connection to professional competency ascend; theoretical fluency precedes operational mastery.

Phase 4. Multiple models of supervision employed; more alert responsiveness to spontaneous feedback in analysis conferences; philosophical and ethical dilemmas move into positions of central concern; interests in experimental and empirical research in supervision develop; interest directed toward model-building and supervisory analogues from other disciplines, e.g., counseling and teaching; rising concern over finding ways to be supportive to teachers in supervision; greater tendency to follow supervisees' leads, their lines of inquiry, issues, problems, priorities, etc; more willingness to commit themselves to teachers' objectives; self-perceptions more as students of supervision, of professional behavior, and of teaching and learning, than vocational in the sense of being bound up primarily in achieving moment-to-moment supervisory goals; more subtle appreciation of small increments of change in teaching behavior; developing interest to supervise other supervision students and to innovate new supervisory behaviors; morale issues associated with difficulties in synthesizing conflicting and/or apparently unrelated aspects of supervisory theory, rationales for practice, inconsistencies between theory and practice, and inconsistencies between results of any given gambit from time to time; alert to parallelisms between supervision and teaching.

614. Hypothesis: To begin programs in professional education with definitions of key constructs, both operational and theoretical, provides guidelines and structures for the students and facilitates their efficient learning.

615. Hypothesis: A priori definitions help the students to recognize phenomena when they occur which might otherwise have gone by them.

616. Antithesis: To privide a priori definitions in teaching and in supervision operates against fully developed conceptual learning; definitions tend to be learned by rote, overgeneralized, stereotyped and reified; fluency in definitions creates an illusion of conceptual fluency which may preclude more extensive learning.

617. Problem: At what stage of professional education (or development) should instructional emphasis be placed on theoretical issues in supervision (i.e., in supervisor education)?

618. Proposition: If a goal is to teach teachers and supervisors multiple models of professional practice, then multiple models should be taught from the outset so that commitments to any particular model do not crystallize prematurely.

619. Recommendation: Empirical study of students' learning behavior in future programs and of such behavior as it is reflected in case materials like those in the appendix of this work should be employed

Sequences of Professional Learning (Continued.)

as a basis for arranging intellectual and behavioral outcomes in developmental or logical sequences. Instead of deciding, a priori, what sequence learning should follow in the future, the planning of learning sequences might be modeled after the actual sequences in which learning is known to have progressed previously.

620. Recommendation: Develop "role-maps" before and during future programs that depict, in advance and as the program progresses, evolutions of roles that can serve as general criteria in reference to which students and faculty can assess their progress in the program.

621. Problem: The questions of how roles evolve and of what sequence of development is consistent with certain goals in the program, e.g., teaching for process goals, could be set as an explicit problem for the students.

622. Hypothesis: Most teaching and supervision students are "unanalytical" initially.

623. Hypothesis: The level of generalization at which supervision students characterize teaching is inversely related to their professional sophistication: the earlier they are in professional development, the more global and generalized their characterizations will be.

624. Hypothesis: Characterizations of teaching offered by supervision students will be more complex at advanced stages of their professional development than at early stages.

625. Recommendation: Test models of genetic professional development against empirical observation of students in professional practicums and revise them in accordance with incoming data.

Silent Participation by Supervisors See, "Non-Participating Observers."

Social Factors in Supervision See,""Round-Robin" Analyses."

626. Hypothesis: Natural tendencies to employ social relationships as sources of emotional income can be intensified or muted by supervisors' behaviors.

627. Hypothesis: Round-robin analysis, i.e., supervisory analyses conducted briefly, informally, and superficially, are universally popular among teaching students because, in effect, they do not comprise potent supervision. They are basically social rather than analytical and do not, therefore, pose threats to the teaching students, relative to more orthodox supervision.

Special Conventions in Supervision See, "Contracts in Supervision."

628. Hypothesis: Specialized professional conventions have not emerged in clinical supervision with the clarity that they have, for example, in medicine, psychiatry and law.

629. Hypothesis: Because it has unique goals among professional practices, supervision requires special conventions of operation as other practices, e.g., psychiatry, law and medicine do.

630. Recommendation: Set "professional conventions" as an explicit problem for study in programs of supervisor education. Specialized conventions can be developed in reference to other professional models and to the special goals and techniques that characterize clinical supervision; the fact that it is goal-directed; the fact that it is for the supervisee's sake (rather than the supervisor's) and the fact that the supervisor's discipline represents an area of professional specialization that is not entirely congruent with that of classroom teaching.

631. Hypothesis: Supervision fails when the professional (interactional, dialectical) conventions by which it is supposed to operate are obscure.

632. Hypothesis: In its present state, clinical supervision is generally pervaded by conventions that have filtered from other professional contexts, e.g., administration, teaching and counseling, which are often inappropriate in supervision and may, in fact, be superfluities in the disciplines from which they originate.

Special Conventions in Supervision

633. Hypothesis: In the absence of specialized conventions, clinical supervision tends generally to operate according to common social conventions.

634. Hypothesis: Clinical supervision may result in frustrations and possible hurts to supervisees when the implicit basis upon which they are operating is a social one because, in the interest of promoting technical advancement, clinical supervisors often engage in behavioral analyses, etc., which are socially awkward, if professionally correct.

635. Hypothesis: In group supervision, supervisors tend to reflect their teaching styles and to proceed according to the premises that tend to underly their teaching behavior.

636. Hypothesis: Supervision often fails because the supervisor's and the supervisee's implicit conventions are not in phase; one operates according to one set of principles and expectations while the other employs a different, sometimes conflicting set.

637. Hypothesis: It represents a disadvantage to supervision for supervisors not to be certain of the rules that govern their behavior when they undertake clinical supervision.

638. Hypothesis: One factor that complicates the problem of professional conventions in supervision is that, unlike medicine and counseling, for example, supervision is not exclusively for the supervisee's sake but is, rather, for the sake of improved instruction, etc.

639. Hypothesis: One factor that complicates the problem of professional conventions in supervision is that whereas in medicine, for example, nosologies exist by means of which to classify the patient's needs and specific prescriptions are often available to fill such needs, in supervision neither are the teacher's requirements always explicitly definable nor are the separations between the supervisee's needs and the supervisor's always as clear-cut as they are in connection to other practices.

640. Problem: By use of such instruments as Flanders' and other instruments designed specifically for the purpose, study the teaching

Special Conventions in Supervision (Continued.)

and supervisory behavior of individual students to discover whether or not professional patterns from classroom work tend to carry over into leadership behavior in group supervision.

641. Problem: General principles are required in clinical group supervision to indicate when participants' decisions should be invited and accepted, when to impose decisions as a leader, and when, in the leadership role, to review decisions that participants have made.

642. Hypothesis: Whereas a logical means for testing the effectiveness of verbal communication is to ask the respondent to state his understanding of what was said or to restate one's own understanding of what the respondent has said, social inhibitions seem to operate against such requests, partly because it is sometimes implicitly assumed that to ask a respondent to "play-back" some line of reasoning creates an impression of infantilizing the respondent.

Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision See, "Biases in Observation and Supervision."

643. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to avoid addressing weaknesses in supervision. This is especially true of teaching students who are practicing to learn supervisory skills. (See, "Observational Biases in Supervision.")

644. Hypothesis: Whereas supervisors tend to avoid addressing weaknesses in supervision, they tend to cite more weaknesses than strengths in strategy sessions and to record more weaknesses than strengths in observation.

645. Hypothesis: Supervisors are more likely to address weaknesses in supervision when they believe that a balancing number of strengths exists that can be addressed than when they do not.

646. Hypothesis: It is not necessarily true, as supervisors frequently assume, that by balancing weaknesses one-for-one with strengths or that by citing more strengths than weaknesses, supervision conferences can be emotionally neutralized or made to seem predominently rewarding.

Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision (Continued.)

Quantitative balances between "rewards" and "punishments" do not necessarily correspond to their psychological weightings for the supervisees.

647. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to assume that to cite strengths in supervision will reward the teacher while to cite weaknesses will punish him.

648. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to feel excessively responsible for their supervisees' psychological welfare. This is particularly true of teachers who are functioning in supervisory roles (in contrast to professional supervisors).

649. Hypothesis: When addressing weaknesses in supervision, students tend to structure their confrontations so that seemingly legitimate "excuses" are readily available to the teacher. In this manner, opportunities for saving face are presumably incorporated into the supervision.

650. Hypothesis: Supervisors and teachers both seem to associate hostility with citation of weaknesses in teaching; i.e., in this frame of reference, to address weaknesses is an unfriendly act.

651. Hypothesis: Supervisors and teachers tend, implicitly, to associate moral stigmas with professional inadequacies, e.g., technical weaknesses.

652. Hypothesis: In supervision conferences, the negative elements of complex (±) patterns tend to be dropped.

653. Hypothesis: In response to the policy of "working from strength" (building upon strengths, expanding existing strengths, taking a positive approach) in supervision, supervisors tend to create "false positives" to address when they must supervise teaching that seemed generally inadequate to them and to elevate trivial teaching behaviors to a level of importance warranting address.

654. Hypothesis: Their tendencies to avoid weaknesses in supervision (negative issues) lead supervisors to create "false positives" for

Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision (Continued.)

purposes of ostensible balancing in supervision conferences.

655. Hypothesis: To reserve "strengths" for the last phase of a supervision conference helps to end the conference on a note of optimism and leaves the teacher with incentives to be supervised subsequently.

656. Hypothesis: Teachers are more likely to be emotionally affected by citations of weaknesses than by citations of strengths.

657. Hypothesis:"Strengths-weaknesses" is an unsatisfactory polarization to employ in supervisory analyses because it confirms teachers' suspicions that supervisors have formed *a priori* value judgments and reinforces their own tendenceis to deal in unsubtle and over-simplified dichotomies.

658. Hypothesis: Most teachers tend to deal in good-bad dichotomies in relation to their teaching and distrust supervision that claims to do otherwise.

659. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to remember negative criticisms arising in supervision more vividly and for a longer time than positive ones.

660. Hypothesis: Broaching negative teaching patterns directly in supervision is less likely to induce anxiety than avoidance of negative patterns that leaves teachers wondering how the supervisor actually perceives their work. Straightforward confrontation of negative patterns can be reassuring in this sense.

661. Problem: How should supervisors generally treat teachers' rationalizations for manifest weaknesses in their teaching performances?

662. Hypothesis: To deal, in supervision, with patterns of teaching that simultaneously embody both strengths and weaknesses has the advantages of teaching more complex views of professional behavior than may have existed previously and of avoiding global evaluations of teaching, e.g., that it was good or bad, which teachers tend to expect.

Strengths and Weaknesses in Supervision (Continued.)

663. Hypothesis: To deal, in supervision, with patterns of teaching that simultaneously embody both strengths and weaknesses, generally leaves the supervisee feeling that his supervisors have equivocated, that for some reason they were unwilling to commit themselves, and that, implicitly, they really thought the observed teaching was poor.

664. Hypothesis: To deal with patterns that incorporate both strengths and weaknesses leaves supervisees frustrated because of their difficulty in tolerating "unanswered" professional questions.

665. Hypothesis: Self-confidence and intelligence are positively correlated with supervisees' ability to deal productively with patterns of their teaching behavior that simultaneously incorporate both strengths and weaknesses.

666. Hypothesis: When the presence of observers imposes special stresses upon the pupils and the teacher, weak patterns of teaching behavior are not different from those generally in evidence but are, rather, more sharply defined than they would ordinarily be.

667. Hypothesis: Supervision students have greater difficulty in developing strategies for supervision of teaching that seemed basically strong to them than supervision of teaching that had apparent weaknesses.

Students' Self-Perceptions See, "Role-Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching" and "Vocational, Activistic and Pragmatic Orientations."

668. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to make invidious comparisons between their professsinal competencies and their instructors' when their instructors seem highly competent to them.

669. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to think of themselves more as teachers than as students in practicums like those of Harvard-Lexington. That is to say, they attach higher priorities to achieving competent levels of performance than they do to expanding their knowledge of relevant theory and developing more complex views of teaching and learning.

Students' Self-Perceptions (Continued.)

670. Hypothesis: Instructional goals in programs of teacher/supervisor education tend to become frustrated when the students think of themselves, particularly in conjunction with their roles in practicums, as teachers and supervisors rather than as students of their respective disciplines.

671. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to maintain themselves against data and supervisory interpretations that are inconsistent with their self-concepts.

672. Hypothesis: Teaching and supervision students tend to feel more adequate in planning activities than they do in performing supervision.

673. Hypothesis: One reason that students tend to feel less adequate in supervision than in planning is that their instructors provide examples to be emulated in the former context but not in the latter one.

674. Hypothesis: Students feel less adequate as supervsiors than as planners because more specific criteria and explicit standards of success exist in the former discipline.

675. Hypothesis: Students tend to feel more competent in planning than in supervision because planning is relatively depersonalized whereas supervision involves personal issues and personal contact with the subject; one supervisee who has an explicit identity, in contrast to a classroom of pupils who, relatively speaking, have a collective identity.

676. Hypothesis: Students feel less adequate to supervise than to plan because operational rules are more abundant in the first practice than in the second.

677. Hypothesis: Students tend to feel less adequate in performing roles in connection to which models to emulate, standards to achieve, criteria by which to measure, and operational rules exist in greater abundance than in other professional roles.

678. Hypothesis: The more ambiguous evaluation criteria, operational principles and standards of behavior are, in connection to professional

roles, the more likely students are to feel competent in those roles.

Supervision of Team Teaching See, "Group Supervision."

679. Problem: Clinical supervision of teaching students in groups by groups of supervision students represents a new practice in professional education which requires information and theories about group learning, group processes, categories of professional behavior that are most appropriate to treat in the group settings, and, especially, of whether individual handicaps are appropriate to treat in groups. Future study should focus in two directions, (1) exploration of research from other professional practices whose findings and methods may be applicable and (2) study of the groups in question to serve as a source of relevant information and problems for research.

680. Hypothesis: In conjunction with team teaching and team planning, one problem for supervision should be to evaluate whether individual teaching was consistent with collaborative plans.

681. Hypothesis: Identification of students' behavioral patterns in group behavior and in the group setting may inadvertently result in inhibitions or accentuation of said patterns because of the attention drawn to them.

682. Problem: Increased information is required on special techniques for reinforcing patterns of group behavior. Research in supervision has not gone far enough to permit judgments concerning whether techniques of reinforcement that are generally effective in the supervision of an individual will also be effective in relation to groups of teachers and has not examined sociological or social-psychological models systematically in this connection.

683. Hypothesis: Predictions concerning whether groups of students will respond productively to inductive inquiry are more difficult to make and less reliable than predictions concerning individual students in this context.

684. Hypothesis: Predictions concerning individual students' responsiveness to inductive teaching or supervision are less reliable when the

students are in groups than when they are being treated individually.

685. Hypothesis: Social factors operate to create differences in individual students' behavior in one-to-one and in group settings.

686. Hypothesis: Inductive inquiry operates more effectively in groups than with individuals when individuals' repertoires of relevant constructs are relatively limited.

687. Antithesis: Inductive inquiry is a more cumbersome process in groups than in one-to-one relationships because problems in verbal communication are multiplied in groups.

688. Hypothesis: A disadvantage in supervising groups of students is that individual students tend to be attentive when their own behavior is being considered but less attentive or inattentive when other students' behavior is being addressed. One consequence of this phenomenon is that supervision of groups is often perceived by individual students as having been discursive and inefficient.

689. Hypothesis: Supervision of groups protects individual students in the sense that every member is equally vulnerable.

690. Antithesis: The possibility of losing face is greater when one is supervised among one's fellow teachers, with whom professional relationships must be continued, than when one is supervised individually.

691. Hypothesis: Because some individual supervisees are typically weaker in technical behavior than others, such members are open to persecution in groups because of the relatively great degree of supervisory attention they receive.

692. Hypothesis: Supervision of group behavior strengthens students' functioning in leadership roles.

693. Problem: What factors should be considered in deciding whether analyses of leadership behavior are better to perform in individual supervisory conferences or in the group setting?

Supervision of Team Teaching (Continued.)

694. Hypothesis: The very process of supervising leadership behavior in the group setting tends to undermine the members' confidence in their leaders.

695. Hypothesis: To supervise participation in groups in one-to-one supervision creates an image that the supervisors are employing a strategy of "divide and conquer."

696. Hypothesis: Supervision of group behavior in the group setting creates opportunities for supervisors to demonstrate their benignity in the sense that they will not take over control in groups of teaching students.

697. Antithesis: Any supervisory intervention at all is likely to be perceived as evidence of "taking over" by teaching students in groups.

698. Hypothesis: Whereas some teaching students expect supervisors to play the controlling role in individual supervision, they resent evidence of supervisory control in group meetings.

699. Problem: What should be the nature of supervisors' investments in group planning? Some roles supervision students have played have been as advice-givers, providers of substantive and technical information, analysts, inventors of plans, critics and questioners. The empirical question of which roles students tend to value most and theoretical questions concerning which roles are most likely to achieve desired supervisory outcomes and instructional outcomes in graduate programs require additional research.

700. Proposition: Supervision of planning groups provides supervisors with special diagnostic opportunities in the sense that observation of a teaching student in group leadership can reveal parallelisms existing between that behavior and classroom teaching which, in turn, can give rise to coordinated treatment strategies in both contexts.

701. Hypothesis: Asking for rationales for decisions made by groups will be less likely to arouse defensiveness than asking for individual students' rationales because of the relatively depersonalized character of "group decisions."

Supervision of Team Teaching (Continued.)

702. Antithesis: Defensiveness will not be obviated by the practice of requiring explicit rationales in the group setting because individual students' tendencies to personalize issues and to react defensively to implicit criticisms will operate under any circumstances.

703. Hypothesis: Collective defensiveness of students in groups is more difficult to manage than individual students' defensiveness in one-to-one supervision because of the mutual reinforcements available in the group setting.

704. Problem: Whereas supervision from without might be able to achieve more objectivity than supervision from within teaching teams, i.e., supervision by personnel who have no vested interests in the outcomes of group activity and who have not participated in the creation of group strategies, such supervision tends not to be accepted because of the view that the supervisors have not acquitted themselves by "honest work." The seeming conflict between objectivity on the one hand and acceptance on the other should be authenticated and clarified by systematic study.

705. Problem: A perennial question by both supervisors and teachers is of whether supervisors (supervision students) belong to the teaching team. Definitions of "belonging" that try to establish the legitimacy of belonging while having roles that are different than the teaching students' have generally been rejected in the past. Two related problems are first, of developing theoretically, operationally, and professionally satisfactory role definitions, i.e., definitions of differentiated roles, and second, of making such differentiated roles acceptable enough to teaching students that they can view them as "belonging."

Supervisors' Needs See,"Emotional Determinants in Supervision."

706. Hypothesis: Sequences of supervision are likely to be extended or terminated in relation to the supervisor's needs rather than the teacher's.

707. Hypothesis: Supervision of teachers who give evidence of rejecting supervision is sometimes motivated by the supervisor's need for vindication.

Supervisors' Needs (Continued.)

708. Hypothesis: Supervisors tend to give advice and to engage in advice-giving relationships with supervisees because requests for advice are flattering and professionally seductive.

709. Hypothesis: Supervisors sometimes give advice because of gratifications associated with seeing their own strategies acted out by their supervisees.

710. Hypothesis: Supervisors sometimes give advice as a means for developing evidence, in subsequent teaching, that their ideas have prevailed in relationships with hostile supervisees.

711. Problem: We have not investigated what the emotional implications are for supervision students of teachers' frequent confrontations concerning their absence of answers and associated impugnations of their professional competency. Given the likelihood that such confrontations do comprise emotional difficulties for supervisors, research should be directed toward discovering what kinds of self-protections are likely to be effective and how to equip supervision students with appropriate protective techniques most efficiently.

Supervisory Analogues See, "Counseling and Supervision."

712. Hypothesis: Development of models for eclectic practice in supervision requires research on analogues from treatment and teaching, the former especially in regard to reflexive analysis.

713. Recommendation: Consult the literature of counseling and that of teaching for supervisory analogues.

714. Problem: In keeping with Rogerian views of "client-centered therapy" and "student-centered teaching," develop models of non-directive supervision and prototypical cases that demonstrate supervisory non-directiveness in concrete terms.

715. Hypothesis: More comprehensive knowledge of the effects of supervision upon professional development requires research aimed toward discovering the predictable effects that treatment of symptoms is

likely to have upon the underlying personality structure.

716. Hypothesis: One reason that teaching and supervision may not be perfect analogues is that the "reality principle" is generally more firmly established among (adult) teachers than among pupils. Given the expectation that teachers will have greater emotional maturity than pupils, it would seem more reasonable to depend upon the former group's abilities to delay gratifications than the latter group's.

Supervisory Mystique

717. Hypothesis: When evaluation of teaching employs external criteria (i.e., in contrast to self-evaluation), the processes of evaluation are likely to seem mysterious to supervisees.

718. Hypothesis: In clinical group supervision, the existence of "strategy sessions" from which the supervisee is excluded represents a strong contributing factor to the supervisory mystique.

719. Hypothesis: The use of specialized technical vocabularies by supervisors contributes to the supervisory mystique.

720. Hypothesis: The introduction of "truths" from alien disciplines, e.g., psychology, tends to add to the supervisory mystique.

"Survival Behaviors"

721. Hypothesis: Excessive stress deriving from supervision, time pressures, grades, etc., gives rise to "survival behaviors," i.e., to behaviors whose objective is simply to make it through the program.

722. Hypothesis: Once survival behaviors have been established, it is exceedingly difficult to relax students sufficiently for them to give up such behaviors and to substitute others.

723. Hypothesis: Programmed curriculums and the existence of role-maps

"Survival Behaviors" (Continued.)

would tend to lessen the incidence of survival behaviors because the problem of how well one was doing at any given moment would be less ambiguous.

724. Hypothesis: Survival behaviors operate against running risks in conjunction with new technical approaches; i.e., they inhibit attempts to try new things.

725. Problem: Do students generally seem more receptive to new concepts and new approaches at the beginnings or ends of programs like Harvard-Lexington?

726. Hypothesis: A general result of programs like Harvard-Lexington is to establish new concepts and greater professional vitality among the students.

727. Antithesis: A general effect of programs like Harvard-Lexington is to make students more resistant to new concepts and behaviors because of intensities and stresses which evoke defensiveness and "survival behaviors."

Taxonomies of Teaching and Supervisory Behavior

728. Hypothesis: Despite disadvantages associated with taxonomies which categorize teaching behavior, e.g., tendencies to reify categories and to fit teachers incorrectly, explicit categorization is less deceiving ultimately than implicit categorization which is more apt to accompany an absence of categories.

729. Hypothesis: Although it may be futile to aim at developing an exhaustive typology of teaching behavior, the development of taxonomies in reference to empirical data can have the effect of making behaviors in new supervisory relationships more intelligible to supervisors and more amenable to supervisory treatment.

730. Problem: A useful technique for understanding the causes and effects of supervisory behavior could consist of examining supervision conferences retroactively to identify formal characteristics of their various

Taxonomies of Teaching and Supervisory Behavior

sequences, e.g., analytical, prescriptive, and diagnostic and, in relation to such empirical data, to develop taxonomies of supervision.

Teachers' Capacities for Supervision

731. Problem: Is it possible, and, if so, in what ways, for supervision that is essentially analytical, takes complex views of teaching and learning behavior, and requires fluency in connection to descriptions of intent, strategy, and experience, to be an effective practice to employ with teachers who are generally unfluent, take simple views of their work and who are unmotivated for analysis? The professional problem, in this connection, has really to do with developing practices in supervision that teach supervisees how to be supervised most productively, i.e., that teach them productive supervisee roles. Even in our limited experience, however, some few teachers seem intellectually and/or linguistically unsuited for clinical supervision of this kind and the problem that we see is to begin to specify limits that can serve as general indicators of whether or not supervisory relationships with specific teachers should be initiated.

Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision See, "Acceptability of Supervision to Teachers; Defensiveness; Emotional Determinants in Supervision" and "Resistance to Supervision."

732. Hypothesis: When their supervisors and instructors do not provide answers, teaching students tend to suspect that answers are being deliberately withheld and, in connection to that perception, develop the uncomfortable notion that they are being used, involuntarily, as subjects in some instructional or supervisory experiment.

733. Hypothesis: Teaching students generally experience more anxiety in observational and supervisory roles than they do in planning or in teaching roles except when their teaching is being observed.

734. Hypothesis: Students in the practicums need structures *qua* structures and experience heightened anxiety in the organizational limbos of self-governed, autonomous, fluid teaching and supervision teams.

Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision (Continued.)

735. Hypothesis: Teaching students feel threatened by a mystique that surrounds strategy sessions concerning their own teaching at which they have not been present.

736. Hypothesis: To have participated as members of an observation team does not dispell teaching students' suspicions of the supervisory mystique when they reassume supervisee roles.

737. Hypothesis: Frequent reassurances by instructors and supervision students concerning the objectivity of supervision, safeguards to supervisees, supervisory equities, etc., tend to create issues (i.e., feelings of anxiety) where none may have existed formerly.

738. Hypothesis: Analysis conferences should follow observation as quickly as they can adequately be prepared because teachers' anxieties tend to build during the time that lapses between observation and analysis.

739. Problem: What are the indications to relax (stop) supervision as a measure for dealing with anxiety as opposed to attempting to treat the anxiety in ongoing supervision?

740. Hypothesis: Sequential supervision, i.e., repeated cycles of supervision, is contraindicated when anxiety assumes unmanageable proportions and when supervision has become saturated on central issues.

741. Recommendation: Set "anxiety" as an explicit problem for study in supervisor education.

742. Hypothesis: The strong emphasis placed by teaching students on the importance and urgency of planning and teaching is mainly reactive and emanates from their fears and dislike of supervision.

743. Hypothesis: The strong emphasis placed by teaching students on the importance and urgency of planning and teaching reflects values that are pervasive in the subculture of teaching.

Teachers' Fears and Anxieties in Supervision (Continued.)

744. Hypothesis: For certain supervisees, discomfort is associated with compliments. Whereas they may be psychologically ready to deal with criticisms, even seemingly hostile criticisms, they are not so well prepared to accept rewards and feel embarrassed when supervisors offer praise and approval.

Technical Professional Learning See, "Sequence of Professional Learning."

745. Hypothesis: Superfluous characteristics of their instructor's professional behavior are likely to be imitated (incorporated) by supervision and teaching students when their knowledge of its technical elements in incomplete.

746. Hypothesis: Professional behavior whose technical elements are unrecognized is likely to seem capricious to students.

747. Hypothesis: Students tend to distrust claims that the faculty wants them to assimilate its thinking rather than, necessarily, to accept it.

748. Hypothesis: To stress specific standards of accomplishment beforehand, particularly in reference to abstract learnings, tends to inhibit learning while the practice of analyzing accomplishments after they have occurred tends to reinforce it.

749. Hypothesis: Students' learning is inhibited by the faculty's use of specialized terminology and telegraphic, technical communication.

750. Hypothesis: The existence of specialized terminology leads students to use the technical vocabulary of rote, before adequate understanding of its meanings has been developed.

751. Hypothesis: When the faculty is accustomed to using specialized terminology, it implicitly employs the adoption of such terminology as an evaluation criterion of the students' learning and tends to be biased favorably toward students who use the same vernacular.

752. Hypothesis: The likelihood that students will imitate their instructors' technical behavior by rote can be lessened by engaging them in detailed analyses of demonstrated behavior.

Technical Professional Learning (Continued.)

753. Hypothesis: Verbal precision can be deliberately improved.

754. Recommendation: Develop methods for explicit training in verbal precision for supervision students.

755. Recommendation: Supervisors should be taught methods of teaching teachers self-analytical techniques.

756. Hypothesis: Supervision students tend to regress to pre-technical behavior when they are under stress of anxiety as, for example, in relation to supervising a particularly anxious, defensive or hostile teacher.

757. Hypothesis: Technique regresses under stress; reversion to natural behavior accompanies severe anxiety.

758. Hypothesis: At a certain advanced stage in professional development, technical behavior has become so thoroughly integrated that, in connection with increased professional self-confidence, it does not remit under stress.

759. Problem: Can models of supervision be extended to include formal supervisory strategies that subsume the behaviors we presently regard as being extra-technical (or unorthodox)?

760. Hypothesis: Learning procedures before concepts leads to rote practice.

761. Problem: Do protections against rote practice inhere in indoctrination that is principally theoretical?

762. Hypothesis: Because they are not fluent in academic disputation, supervision students are likely to ask questions of theory in operational and mechanical terms rather than in conceptual ones.

763. Problem: Do habits and techniques of analysis developed in supervision carry over into teachers' treatment of their pupils?

Technical Professional Learning (Continued.)

764. Hypothesis: To be most effective, supervision must teach teachers how to be supervised.

765. Recommendation: Institute seminars for teaching students on "how to be a good supervisee." Such seminars should stress communications skills, analysis of teaching behavior, rules of inference making in professional evaluations, self-analytical skills, etc., and should be oriented toward the general objective of using supervision profitably.

766. Hypothesis: A predictable result of strong commitments, positions, expressions of opinion, etc., by a member of the practicum faculty is to close off further exploration of the issue(s) involved by the students.

767. Problem: Given the fact that the success of clinical supervision has generally depended on how accurately supervisors have guessed (in relation to teachers' intent, their experienced needs, etc.), i.e., that supervision has generally been only as good as the individual supervisor is, the problem is created of whether, in the absence of strong models, it is reasonable to attempt to teach clinical supervision as professional discipline.

768. Hypothesis: Demonstrations are more likely to succeed in teaching technical generalizations in supervision than real supervisory relationships that develop fortuitously in practicums.

769. Problem: Do students of teaching and of supervision acquire greater technical competency in short programs like Harvard-Lexington in conjunction with analyses of demonstrations by "experts" in supervision and teaching or through analyses of their own technical behavior or from a combination of these two approaches?

770. Empirical Questions: How do students tend to feel about ambiguous demonstrations or seemingly faulty demonstrations of supervision and teaching by their instructors?

771. Recommendation: Develop feedback on technical learnings resulting from demonstrations of supervisory and teaching behavior. This research could incorporate formal examinations in which students were

required to identify techniques that were demonstrated. Similar tests could be employed in conjunction with analyses of their own behavior and questions which elicited impressions of technical learnings that students believe derived from them.

772. Hypothesis: Teaching and supervision students tend to permit their behavior and their thinking to be dominated by their instructors and by other students more frequently than they would if the sole criteria for being governed by other people were that their ideas and their exhortations had greater integrity, higher quality, etc., than the students' own.

773. Problem: In the past, decisions of whether or not to relieve supervision students of their supervisory responsibilities because of their own anxieties in certain relationships have been made whimsically -- sometimes in the affirmative, sometimes negatively. A rational approach to this problem awaits exploration of the questions of whether or not and in what ways supervisors' anxieties can be made sources of learning for them.

774. Problem: Is it more important to teach students skills of objective analysis as a principal means for changing their own and other people's behavior, or should a higher priority exist on modifying their professional behavior irrespective of the means? Should the students be explicitly aware of the means (processes) employed to shape their professional behavior?

775. Problem: An area deserving special study is created by the need to extemporize during supervision conferences. Whereas we have had some success in training supervision students to formulate *a priori* strategies and to implement them in analysis conferences, we have not dealt explicitly with the problem of whether supervisors can be taught improvisational adroitness.

776. Hypothesis: Supervisors are less likely to be surprised by events that emerge in supervision conferences and, consequently, undermined, if they have prepared multiple strategies than if they have only considered one line of approach.

777. Problem: Should the clinical supervisor be responsible for devoting time to considering approaches, methods, techniques, etc., in teaching with which he does not agree?

778. Problem: Should instructors in supervision be obligated to devote time to considering systems of supervision with which they disagree?

779. Hypothesis: When conceptual learning occurs in supervisor education, a time lag generally exists between its establishment and that of related technical mastery.

780. Problem: How can instructors reward (reinforce) productive beginnings of technical-conceptual learning without consequently promoting premature crystallization of ideas and behaviors?

781. Recommendation: In reference to such empirical data as are comprised by the case materials herein, re-evaluate the Harvard-Lexington program with regard to whether it is feasible to make supervision and teaching students more analytical, given the time and circumstances available in the program.

782. Hypothesis: In conjunction with technical training, students tend to adopt superficial and non-essential accoutrements of their instructors' behavior.

783. Hypothesis: New technical learnings tend to become stereotyped for supervision students.

784. Hypothesis: Especially at stages where the elements of technical behavior are not clearly defined, supervision students tend to learn their instructors' technical mistakes as well as their successful techniques by imitation.

785. Hypothesis: Supervision students often are unable to recognize in real supervisory situations the existence of techniques, principles of operation, and common, salient, behaviors that they have previously examined academically.

786. Hypothesis: Insights developed in retroactive analyses of supervision make supervision students more technically adequate in subsequent supervisory relationships.

Technical Professional Learning (Continued.)

787. Problem: An important question concerning the interface between theory and operations is of which tends to be cause and which effect, in professional development in teaching and in supervision. In other words, the empirical question is of whether examination of theory generally excites students toward operational experimentation or whether problems arising in operations create a need for theoretical information. If students could be characterized in this regard, curriculums for professional training might, subsequently, be specially developed in accordance with these typological differences.

788. Problem: Improved means should be developed for teaching supervision students techniques of separating perceptions from inferences.

789. Hypothesis: In relation to separating perceptions from inferences, supervision students tend to revert to old confusions during interludes when their instructors relax explicit examination of their behavior in those terms.

790. Hypothesis: Self-monitoring in relation to the technical aspects of one's behavior is required in successful clinical supervision.

791. Hypothesis: Techniques of self-monitoring can be taught to some supervision students.

792. Problem: The question of what variables might be considered for predicting which supervision students can be taught self-monitoring techniques and other skills required for operating at several intellectual levels simultaneously is presently obscure. A productive beginning could consist of phenomenological interviewing from which cognitive prototypes might be developed as models for training.

793. Hypothesis: When instruction begins from a single operational model, subsequent deviations from that model appear as indications of special difficulty to the students.

794. Hypothesis: New professional conventions learned by supervision students tend to be employed ritualistically rather than responsively, by rote rather than spontaneously.

Technical Professional Learning (Continued.)

795. Recommendation: Techniques of leadership in supervision should be set as an explicit problem for study in supervisor education.

796. Problem: A central problem in supervisor education is of how, having taught supervision students models of professional-technical behavior, to teach them to employ such models flexibly and adaptively in practice. Study should be directed toward whether general principles can be formulated to indicate how to adapt systems to exigencies that arise in the course of supervision.

Value Judgments in Supervision

797. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to feel frustrated if they are unable to generalize a global value judgment about their teaching and when supervision does not result in such a judgment, viz., that, by and large, the lesson was good or bad.

798. Hypothesis: Supervisors and teachers tend to be impatient to posit global value judgments about observed teaching and sometimes see analysis as an unnecessary encumbrance.

799. Hypothesis: After training in clinical supervision, teachers and supervisors are generally ambivalent in regard to whether or not to formulate global value judgments. On the one hand, their training has resulted in appreciation of the instructiveness and safeguards associated with analysis based upon objective data. On the other hand, however, strong tendencies remain toward dichotomous, "good-bad" evaluations of teaching.

800. Hypothesis: The common tendency among teachers and supervisors to press for global evaluations of teaching arises partly from anxieties associated with rendering (and receiving) such judgments and a consequent urge to dispense with them as quickly as possible.

801. Hypothesis: The common tendency toward global, dichotomous evaluations of teaching reflects a natural, psychological tendency toward conceptual "economies."

Value Judgments in Supervision (Continued.)

802. Hypothesis: Teachers tend not to believe supervisors' explanations that value judgments are being withheld first, because no single description, e.g., "good" or "bad," fits the data adequately or second, that the supervisor himself does not know whether the teaching in question was effective or not.

803. Hypothesis: Teachers tend to feel that when supervisors withhold value judgments it is because they really believe that the observed teaching was inadequate.

804. Hypothesis: Teachers' tendencies not to believe supervisors' disclaimers in connection to withheld value judgments are generally underlain by the implicit beliefs that answers do exist, that things are generally good or bad, and that their supervisors (and instructors) have really made up their minds in this regard.

805. Hypothesis: To suspend value judgments on teaching until observational data have been examined constitutes an important protection for supervisees against supervisors' biases.

806. Hypothesis: To hold value judgments in abeyance until data have been examined is not generally feasible psychologically.

807. Hypothesis: To withhold value judgments precludes making data-recording processes more efficient by employing explicit screening criteria; i.e., to select special data to record because they are supposedly "significant," generally implies some underlying value judgment(s) about the behaviors in question.

808. Hypothesis: To proscribe expressions of value judgments before data have been systematically examined creates a danger that implicit judgments will subtly affect biases which, because they are not verbalized openly, are not readily amenable to correction.

809. Hypothesis: One danger associated with premature value judgments in supervisory analyses is that, without being completely (differentially) understood, behavioral patterns that have been approved will be applied, generally, in other areas, repleat with their associated weaknesses.

Value Judgments in Supervision (Continued.)

810. Hypothesis: Neophyte supervisors generally interpret policies relating to value judgments too literally. Consequently, they eschew value judgments at all costs, even when they are clearly indicated.

811. Proposition: Rather than to avoid making value judgments about observed teaching, supervisors should be certain that the judgments they do offer are supportable by persuasive data.

812. Proposition: When certain value judgments seem valid but the data are ambiguous in their connection, it is sometimes useful to present the interpretation in question as an hypothesis, being certain to point out that the data are, indeed, unclear.

813. Hypothesis: Supervision students generally categorize teaching according to the following (temporal) sequence: first, teaching is thought to be generally good (+) or bad (-); second, specific patterns of teaching are thought to incorporate advantages and disadvantages simultaneously (±); third, certain patterns of teaching, although they are clearly in evidence, cannot be categorized as +, -, or ± and are considered to be problematical (?).

Vocational, Activistic and Pragmatic Orientations See, "Role Perceptions in Supervision and Teaching" and "Students' Self-Perceptions."

814. Hypothesis: A majority of teaching students manifest activistic tendencies; i.e., they tend to act and to prefer activity in advance of reasons. Such students apparently experience more pleasure in connection to implementational activity than in connection to inquiry.

815. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend to be cynical about research and about the research literature in education which they regard as being fundamentally worthless. One problem in this connection is that they are generally ignorant of what formal characteristics questions must have in order to be researchable or in order to be answerable by reference to the literature.

816. Hypothesis: Most teaching students associate images of animal psychology with the term "experimentation," i.e., they connect it to being unwillingly manipulated by researchers. They also tend to think

Vocational,Activistic and Pragmatic Orientations (Continued.)

of "research" as looking for information in books.

817. Hypothesis: Vocationally oriented teaching students tend to withdraw from and to avoid activities that to not seem to implement their immediate vocational goals.

818. Hypothesis: Conflicts of interest which arose between students and faculty who were theoretically oriented, on the one hand, and vocationally oriented, on the other, led to debates that exceeded productive limits primarily because that distinction was not explicitly recognized at the time.

819. Recommendation: Prior advertisements of programs like Harvard-Lexington should specify the faculty's position, if it has one, in regard to vocationalism. The issue should, additionally, be explicated during early stages of such programs to that ambiguities and subsequent conflicts do not arise in that context.

820. Proposition: Inasmuch as the interface between theory and practice in supervision and teaching in not clearly understood, it would seem potentially useful to offer graduate programs in which both orientations (academic and vocational) had respectability and might be studied in connection to one another.

821. Recommendation: Involve students in creating parallel programs that are congenial to both orientations and specifically provide for touchpoints between them.

822. Problems: The range of relationships and interrelationships between vocational and academic learning, abstract issues and technical proficiencies, and long and short term goals should be studied in future programs and in the field generally. Empirical study of students' opinions and expectations in this regard should provide stronger indications of how to proceed experimentally.

823. Problem: Our experience suggests that the following tendencies generally occur concurrently: vocationalism, pragmatism, activism, procedural orientations and the tendency to award priorities to answers. Connections between these phenomena should be authenticated and defined in greater detail by systematic study.

Vocational, Activistic and Pragmatic Orientations (Continued.)

824. Hypothesis: When a preponderance of supervision students' time is allocated to activities in the practicum, degrees of involvement and investment are often reached that obscure premiums upon their own learning and that, in effect, create a vocational orientation rather than one directed toward learning. The same phenomenon exists in reference to teaching students and their practicums.

825. Hypothesis: Their identification with teaching and their allegiance to that profession inhibits teaching students from functioning effectively in supervisory roles. They are generally reluctant to engage in supervisory practice because of their tradition of resistance to such practice and reluctance to assume critical roles with their colleagues.

826. Hypothesis: Teaching students tend not to prosecute issues energetically in supervisory roles because of an implicit commitment to a position of "live and let live" in relation to their fellow teaching students.

827. Hypothesis: Vocationalism may represent a natural and necessary stage of professional development, one which antecedes interest in abstract professional problems for teachers and supervisors who do not fixate at it.

828. Hypothesis: Professional decisions by teaching students are most often made for the sake of "expediency" or "efficiency."

APPENDIX B

Positive Examples of Teaching for Process Goals

(Excerpt from "Processes in Education"
unpublished paper by Robert Goldhammer, 1963.)

I. A first grade lesson in number. On each of three worktables, the teacher has placed a set of Stern's Structural Arithmetic Blocks with which the children have been invited to play. These are wooden blocks that represent the numbers one through ten, such that the 1-block is a one-inch cube, the 2-block is a two-inch rectangle grooved at the one-inch mark, the 3-block is a three-inch rectangle grooved at one-inch units, etc., where each block is painted a different color (i.e., all 1-blocks are green, all 2-blocks are purple, all 3-blocks are white, etc.). The teacher walked around the classroom for about fifteen minutes while the children arranged their blocks into various horizontal configurations and vertical structures.

TEACHER: Boys and girls -- let's stop for a few minutes so that we can talk about the things you've built.

TOM: I made a design.

BILLY: Me and Jerry built a bridge. [Jerry accidentally kicks a leg of the table causing the structure to sway.] Hey! Watch it . . .

JERRY: Oops!

[Both boys giggle.]

JUDY: We got steps.

ARLENE: A staircase.

TEACHER: Well, since you all seem to have had fun doing things with these blocks, supposing we take turns, going around the room, and somebody from each group can tell us about what they did. Mark? What did you and Paul do?

MARK: Well, we made a staircase like Judy did.

TEACHER: Can you tell us how you did that?

MARK: Well, we took the smallest piece and then put the next one next to it. And then we put in the rest of them and we got a staircase.

TEACHER: Class, look at the staircase that Mark built with Paul. Does it look like a staircase?

[Affirmative nods.]

TEACHER: What makes it look that way?

RODNEY: 'Cause they each go up the same.

SHIRLEY: It's even, like steps. You could climb up it.

TEACHER: Yes, it looks that way, doesn't it? Supposing I change it this way? [She exchanges the 4 and 5-blocks.] Does it still make a good staircase?

CLASS: No!

PAUL: It's a bumpy one.

JUDY: It looks like buildings.

SHIRLEY: It's not even.

TEACHER: What does that mean -- it's not even?

SHIRLEY: Uh . . . they don't go up the same amount.

TEACHER: Uh huh.

PAUL: You couldn't climb over it, it's too high.

TEACHER: Yes, I see what you mean. Children, do these blocks remind you of anything? Are they like anything?

ARLENE: They're like steps.

TEACHER: Yes, they do look that way when you put them together a certain way. Supposing we wanted to name these blocks? What might we call each block?

[No response]

TEACHER: Well, supposing I wanted someone to bring me a particular block from across the room? How could I tell him which block I wanted?

JON: By the color?

MARK: Yeah.

TEACHER: Yes, indeed. I could say, "Jon would you bring me a blue block?" . . . Let's make believe that someone painted all the blocks the same color. How could I ask for a block then?

BILLY: Well, you could ask for the smallest block or the biggest block.

MARK: Or the middle sized block.

TEACHER: Is there one right in the middle?

MARK: Umm, I think so.

TEACHER: Well, you look at your blocks and tell me when you're sure. . . . Now, Billy's suggestion is a good one, but what if you didn't have every kind of block on your table? If I asked for the smallest block then you might pick the smallest one you had, but that might not be the same as the smallest block someone else had at another table.

LOIS: You could say the blue block.

TEACHER: Ah! But remember, we're making believe that they're all the same color now.

LOIS: Oh, yeah. I forgot.

TOM: Couldn't we say them like numbers?

TEACHER: Tell us what you mean, Tom.

TOM: Well, we could call the littlest block one.

MARK: And then the next one would be two.

PAUL: The biggest one would be . . . nine!

RODNEY: No it wouldn't -- it's a ten.

PAUL: Oh yeah.

TEACHER: Are you saying, then, that these blocks remind you of numbers?

[Affirmative nods, yes's, etc.]

BILLY: Not all the numbers, there's no hundred!

[Class giggles.]

LOIS: There's no twelve, that's how old my sister Carol is, twelve.

TEACHER: I guess you're right. The biggest number I can find is a ten.

MARK: Couldn't you make a twelve with a ten and then two more?

TEACHER: Two more what?

MARK: Two more of the green ones, see? Ten, eleven, twelve!

TEACHER: Class, do you understand what Mark is saying?

BILLY: It wouldn't have to be two green ones, it could be one purple one.

TEACHER: What could be?

BILLY: Uh, I forgot, uh, oh yeah -- twelve.

TEACHER: Well, that's certainly very interesting. You've told me that these blocks remind you of numbers, that the smallest block is like the number one, the biggest block is like the number ten, that you can make numbers bigger than ten by putting together different blocks, and that some blocks are the same as other blocks when you put them together, like the purple 2-block is the same as two green 1-blocks. You've certainly found out a lot of things about these.

MARK: You can make a twenty with two of the black ones, the tens. Look how big it is!

TEACHER: Yes. Can you make a number even bigger than that?

LOIS: Yeah, you could put all the blocks like this [begins to arrange them end-to-end] and it would be a giant number.

[Class laughs.]

TEACHER: You certainly could, but that would be a hard number to name, wouldn't it?

PAUL: Uh uh, you'd just count up.

TEACHER: All the blocks? Well, you could do it, I suppose, but, uh -- why don't you try it and see what happens?

MARK: There is no middle block, there's like a space in the middle.

TEACHER: Oh yes. Mark has found that there is no middle-sized block if we take them all.

MARK: But if you leave off the 10-block, then the brown one's the middle block.

PAUL: Yes, the 5-block.

BILLY: Look what I did, I made it all even!

TEACHER: Class, look what Billy did, he made a square! How did you do that, Billy?

BILLY: Uh, I put the small -- the littlest block on the biggest one, uh, no -- wait, uh, I put the little block on the next-to-the-biggest-one . . .

MARK: That's nine.

BILLY: Yeah, on the nine, and then I put the next one and the next one.

TEACHER: Yes, I see. The nine with the one, the eight with the two, the seven with the three . . .

BILLY: And in the middle it changes.

TEACHER: Changes?

SHIRLEY: It goes like upside down.

TEACHER: Ah, yes!

BILLY: Yeah.

TEACHER: What about the tower that you and Jerry made?

JERRY: It's a bridge

TEACHER: I'm sorry, a bridge. It looks like it was hard to build.

JERRY: Yeah, because it kept falling down on one side, and then we put something on the other side, but then it would fall down there.

TEACHER: How did you make it work?

JERRY: Uh, we had to put the same on.

TEACHER: How do you mean?

RODNEY: Like -- there's a green one here and a green one here and a white one here, on this side, and another white one on the other side, it's the same!

TEACHER: They balance?

MARK: Yeah.

II. A seventh grade science lesson. Pupils have been assigned to worktables supplied with bowls of ice, running water, gas burners, and bi-metallic strips fitted into wooden handles.

TEACHER: Alright kids, you remember that in the unit we just finished up, on weather, one of the things we studied was the effect -- or I should say the effects -- of temperature on the behavior of air masses. Today we'll begin to take a look at heat in relation to the behavior of matter, not directly concerned with weather. I am purposely not going to say much more about it for now. You will find a variety of materials at the tables. With the understanding that we are concerned with heat and matter, see if you can discover relationships or puzzles that you can report back to the class in about thirty minutes. OK, go ahead. Distribute yourselves about three to a table. I'll walk around the lab as you're working.

[The pupils dispersed and in thirty minutes were asked to reassemble for discussion.]

TEACHER: OK, what's been happening?

ROBERT: What I'd like to know is what kind of crazy thing this is [holding up a bi-metallic strip].

TONY: Yeah, it just ain't human!

TEACHER: Something about it puzzles you?

BERNY: Yeah, what makes it bend like that?

SUSAN: It doesn't make sense. No matter which side you put the flame on it always bends in the same direction. And when you cool it, it goes the other way.

ROBERT: And why should it bend anyhow? If you put a knife into flame it doesn't bend.

SONYA: Maybe if the knife was thin enough . . .

ROBERT: Naw, even a spatula, which I thought this thing was -- I never saw one do that.

MILDRED: Have you tried it?

ARNIE: Mr. Glass, is this a spatula?

TEACHER: I suppose you could use it for that, but no, as a matter of fact it's a piece of laboratory equipment used for certain kinds of demonstrations.

LENNY: Another thing, it doesn't stay bent. If you just let it cool to room temperature it goes back to straight; to the way it was.

ROBERT: I don't get it.

TEACHER: Well, look kids, do you remember how I introduced you to this material?

SONYA: You told us that we were going to study about heat and matter.

TEACHER: That's right. Anything else?

ARNOLD: Uh, you talked about what we'd seen about heat in the stuff on weather.

TEACHER: Yeah. Can anybody remember anything about that that might be relevant to this thing that's confusing you?

[Silence.]

TEACHER: OK, what do you remember about heat and air?

LENNY: Warm air rises.

TEACHER: Why?

LENNY: Because it expands.

TEACHER: Uh huh. What makes it do that?

MILDRED: Oh yeah, I remember. Heat is a form of energy. It makes the molecules of air dance, sort of -- it makes them bounce against each other harder, or faster.

ROBERT: So that for a certain number of molecules, they take up more space because they need more room. Also, when they take up more room the air weighs less so it rises.

ANDREW: So what's that got to do with this stuff?

SONYA: Maybe the heat makes the metal expand and that's why it bends.

[Animated cross-conversation, argument.]

ANDREW: That's stupid. If it expanded, it would just get bigger --

it wouldn't bend! Anyhow, metal's not like air, it can't float around the same way. It doesn't have molecules.

FRANCES: I thought everything is made of atoms or molecules?

[Silence.]

LENNY: Is that right, Mr. Glass?

TEACHER: Well, why don't we assume that it is and then see what effects that assumption has on your conclusions?

FRANCES: Oh! Mr. Glass! You never tell us anything.

LENNY: Yeah, why don't you tell us, just for once!

ROBERT: He's not going to tell us. Look, if everything is made of molecules or atoms or whatever you call them, then shouldn't the same thing happen? I mean, if heat energy makes molecules of air move faster, then shouldn't it do the same thing to the molecules in the metal?

ANDREW: But the metal's solid, there's nothing moving in it.

TEACHER: Any of you girls ever tried to get the top off a jar that was stuck? How do you do it?

MYRNA: By running hot water over it.

TEACHER: Well, how does that work?

ANDREW: The top gets looser, hey! It expands -- but then shouldn't glass expand too? It would all be the same?!

TEACHER: It would seem that way, wouldn't it?

ROBERT: Unless the glass and the metal don't expand the same amount -- or as fast?

TEACHER: Sounds reasonable.

SONYA: I give the jar to my brother, he lifts weights . . .

[Laughter.]

RICHARD: I once heard that the George Washington Bridge expands in the summer, it actually sags a little bit.

LENNY: Are you kidding?

ROBERT: But it doesn't bend, like this thing -- hey, just picture that!

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: People, let's try to sum up where we are. We have the idea that, well, first let's state the problem. We're trying to find out why this instrument bends when it's heated and cooled, right? Now, we have the idea that heat makes things expand, just the way we saw it make air expand, remember the balloon experiment? Also, Bob's suggested that not all things necessarily expand the same amount, or at the same rate. We are making the assumption that metal is made of molecules, just as air is, and that they respond to heat energy the same way air molecules do. Now is there any way to put this all together to solve our problem? Why does this instrument bend?

ROBERT: It must be like the jar, somehow.

SONYA: But there's no glass -- it's just metal.

TEACHER: Alright, my young scientists. Let's see how perceptive you are. Go back to the equipment and see if you can find out more about the properties of this instrument that might help explain. Go ahead. If anybody figures it out, just yell and we'll pull back together again.

[After ten minutes no one had found a solution.]

TEACHER: OK. What have you discovered?

MYRNA: All I can see is that this thing is different colors on both sides.

LENNY: Big deal!

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: "He who laughs last . . . " Can anyone see any importance in Myrna's observation?

SONYA: It's like it was two different kinds of metal on both sides.

TEACHER: Can you explain more fully?

SONYA: Yeah, like on one side it's one kind of metal and on the other side it's another kind.

ROBERT: Holy mackerel!!!

TEACHER: Robert?

ROBERT: I get it now.

TEACHER: Bob thinks he's got an answer. Anybody else? [Pause.] Remember the jar.

ARNOLD: Oh! It's simple.

[Within several minutes others indicated their understanding.]

TEACHER: OK, who's going to stick nis neck out first?

ROBERT: [Places his head on a worktable, class laughs.] I will, if this thingamajig is made of different metals on each side, then maybe one of them expands faster than the other when you heat it.

TEACHER: Sounds good so far. So what? Arnold?

ARNOLD: So if it does, then the side that doesn't go as much . . .

TEACHER: Expand?

ARNOLD: Yeah, expand, that side would sort of hold back the other side and make it curve inward.

TEACHER: Do others agree with this conclusion?

[Affirmative exclamations.]

MILDRED: And the same thing would work the other way -- when you cool it with the ice.

TEACHER: Umhm. Now just to be sure we've got the picture, everybody write down the word "outside" or "inside" to tell me on which side of the curve you'd expect to find the metal that expands most or fastest. [Pause.] OK. What did you write, Andrew?

ANDREW: "Outside."

TEACHER: Anybody have "inside?"

BRUCE: I did, but I got mixed up. The answer's "outside."

TEACHER: Well! It looks as if we agree. What do you think of the assumption we made about metal having molecules like air?

ROBERT: It's a good one.

TEACHER: Why?

LENNY: Because it fits.

TEACHER: Umhm. By the way, Arnie, this "spatula" is called a bi-metallic strip.

[Class laughs.]

III. The same seventh grade science class, one day later.

TONY: Mr. Glass?

TEACHER: Tony?

TONY: Could you tell us something about what to study for the final, I mean, like what things'll be hit the hardest, so we can prepare?

ROBERT: Yeah, you said we could talk about it sometime and the term's almost over.

TEACHER: Yes, I remember I did say something to the effect that we might take some time to discuss how your learning of science should be evaluated. I wonder if any of you have any ideas about it?

BERNY: Y'mean about what should be on the final?

TEACHER: Uh, I was thinking more about the general question of how well or how much you're learning.

ROBERT: I've learned more in here than in any other class.

FRANCES: Me too. This is the best class I've got.

ANDREW: Brownie!

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: Let's be serious about this. It doesn't surprise me to hear you say good things about this class because it seems apparent, a good part of the time, that you're enjoying the work.

ROBERT: I don't always enjoy it. Sometimes it kills me. Like yesterday with that two -- what is it? -- oh yeah, bi-metallic strip. It turned out to be so simple but I was really sweating it there for a while. If that had been a test, ugh!

LENNY: That's when I enjoy it the most.

FRANCES: When it's hard like it was yesterday. The time goes so fast!

It's like we just got in here when the bell rings. Even though it's hard, you sort of forget about the time -- and it's fun.

TEACHER: You're saying that even though the work is hard, sometimes you enjoy it anyway?

LENNY: Yes. It's hard and it's fun too. Like when you get the answer, it makes you feel good.

TEACHER: There's a good feeling connected with getting the right answer?

LENNY: Yeah, it's sort of like a relief!

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: What makes a right answer feel good?

ANDREW: One step closer to an 'A.'

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: Did you feel good yesterday when you solved the problem of the bending strip?

ANDREW: Yeah.

TEACHER: Supposing this had been done at a meeting of the Science Club, or something like that where there was no grade to worry about. How would you have felt then?

MILDRED: I don't think it would make any difference. All I was thinking about yesterday was, uh, for some way to figure it out, uh, I wasn't even thinking about grades. I mean, when I got the answer I would have felt good anyhow.

TEACHER: What did you people get yesterday, besides the answer?

[Silence.]

TEACHER: Do you remember how we began?

ROBERT: We just started fiddling around with the stuff.

TEACHER: Where did the question come from to which this "answer" you're talking about belonged?

ARNIE: Bob said the question when we started to discuss it.

ROBERT: Oh yeah.

TEACHER: Uh huh. How did you feel then?

ROBERT: Confused!

[Laughter]

TEACHER: Well, it occurred to me that maybe you felt good at the moment when you were first able to put your "confusion" into words.

ROBERT: Uh, I guess so.

LENNY: At least then you can begin to do something about it.

TEACHER: What do you mean?

LENNY: Well, I mean before it's just like a feeling, I don't know how to say it. You have a confused feeling but, uh, you don't know where to go. Uhm -- but after you've put the right question together, uh --

ROBERT: You still don't know where to go!

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: This is interesting to talk about, but let's make sure we stick to Tony's question about evaluation. What's your evaluation of how well you've learned in here?

TONY: Mine?

TEACHER: Yeah.

TONY: You mean, for me?

TEACHER: Yes. It's a question each one of you might think about right now in relation to himself.

TONY: Uh, I think I learned a lot.

TEACHER: Like what?

TONY: Well, like about electricity and magnetism, and weather, and heat . . .

TEACHER: OK. So you think, or, er, you feel that you've learned some things about general science?

TONY: Yeah.

TEACHER: How do the rest of you feel about it?

[Affirmative comments.]

TEACHER: How many of you expect to be professional scientists of one kind or another?

[Three hands go up.]

SONYA: I haven't decided yet.

LENNY: She's going to be president.

[Laughter.]

TEACHER: Well, the question I'm trying to get to is what difference it really makes that you've learned anything about science if you don't have any immediate or long-term use for that information.

ROBERT: It's something you have to take -- and get a good grade in.

TEACHER: But didn't you say something about "enjoyment?"

ROBERT: Yeah, it's fun.

TEACHER: Well can you help me understand what makes it fun? Why do you feel good when you're able to ask a good question or find a good answer?

BERNIE: This sounds funny, but I get the same feeling in weight-lifting. When I press something higher than I did yesterday, I feel like I could knock over the world, uh, like, powerful.

TEACHER: Developing good questions and answers makes you feel powerful?

BERNIE: Yeah.

FRANCES: I think that's a good way to say it. You feel smarter -- bigger.

TEACHER: Is this the only class where you feel that way?

MILDRED: I feel good in English when we write our own short stories.

ARNIE: And in orchestra when we polish up something new.

TEACHER: So that you might say that besides learning things about science, in here, you've also learned something about yourselves? About things that are hard to do and about things that make you feel good? . . . It sounds as though you may be learning things about your own thinking habits -- besides science itself.

ROBERT: I feel good when I talk to the sixth graders and I see how stupid they are, like I was last year.

TEACHER: What are you able to do now that you couldn't do then?

ROBERT: I know more.

TEACHER: So?

ROBERT: I can figure out harder stuff.

TEACHER: Yes. Perhaps that's one way to say that you feel more powerful in your ability to deal with unknown knowledge, things that are confusing at first, like yesterday. I think it's important that you people realize what you showed about your learning yesterday, in addition to facts about heat and bi-metallic strips. For one thing, you did not get hung up with the apparatus by playing with it in a way that didn't get you anywhere. After only a little while, you discovered something about it that made you curious and then, I think, a little angry -- because you couldn't explain it. Then you found the exact words to express your problem when you asked me "What makes it bend like that?" At first there didn't seem to be any connection between this problem and anything you had run across before. I tried to help by reminding you of our discoveries about heat and air. Then somebody, I think several of you, restated some principles about heat energy and the behavior of molecules and suddenly, voila! The connection was made to molecules in the metal strip. You were able to make sense out of my reminder about opening stuck jars. Even after you began to feel more certain that there was something lurking in the background that connected these various ideas, you still weren't able to solve the puzzle. When I sent you back the second time to investigate the materials, Myrna began to look at the strip in a new way. Somehow, she felt there might be something about the strip itself that was the key to the riddle. You'd already established that heat should make it expand, now you had to figure out why, when it expanded, it bent as well. It was only after Myrna suggested that the strip was bi-metallic that someone was able to see a connection to the jar problem, then, suddenly, the whole thing became very simple.

I guess that the main point of my remarks is that yesterday you showed a lot of what you've called "power" in being able to find a problem in your data, express that problem, reach back into your former experience for some knowledge that might be relevant to it, reconsider your data in light of what you could remember about related things, and then, finally, come up with a solution.

ROBERT: So besides learning something about science, it's like we're learning how to think about things.

ARNIE: It's the same in orchestra when we have to learn a new piece.

TEACHER: I don't know if you've ever stopped to think about your learning or yourselves this way before. I think that maybe it's a habit you should develop, a kind of self-evaluation, like Bob does when he compares himself to the sixth graders.

TONY: Hey! What about the final?

TEACHER: Uh -- -- sorry kids -- there's the bell.

FRANCES: Already?

APPENDIX C

Process Goals In Supervision

(Excerpt From Lecture by Robert Goldhammer,
July 1964, the University of Pittsburgh.)

. . . Now, as I see it, this amplification, this burgeoning, this expanded condition of knowledge and the promise of increasing expansion, forces us to reevaluate our ambitions as educators. On the one hand, we have the literal impossibility not only of training prospective teachers so that they achieve multi-disciplinary mastery, but even of developing programs of higher education in general and of teacher education specifically that can insure a balanced sampling of available knowledge. Even if such a sampling were possible, its necessary superficiality would preclude possibilities of articulating the nexuses which relate disciplines and would result in banal units of instruction like those we encounter, for example, in social studies where, instead of investigations appropriate to the social sciences: anthropology, sociology and political science, the children are taught innocuous information about "our friend the fireman" and "how to be a good neighbor," in civics classes and, in the end, our teachers would have obtained discreet and insular bodies of information that could not readily be integrated by their teaching. On the other hand, there is the problem of pursuing traditional models of education which, in essence, seek to program items of information into learners so that when they leave school they will be "educated."

I am certain that if you examine your own experience you will find, as I do, that most of the time I spent in school I was subjected to my teachers' futile attempts to teach me things that I was supposed to remember. And the hell of it is that I have forgotten most of the things that I was taught. After six precarious years of French, I can't find my way through a menu. After six years of music theory, solfeggio, harmony and counterpoint, I have lost the capacity to construct an elementary figured bass as the result of disuse. I cannot recite the periodic table of the elements, nor balance a chemical equation, nor manipulate quadratic formulas, nor describe the anatomy of a leaf -- and I would be very hard put to derive a square root for you right this minute without the assistance of a thousand-dollar electronic calculator. My point is, in short, that first of all, we have already passed beyond the point where it is possible to know even a little bit about most things, and, secondly, that one of humanity's most troublesome frailties is that it forgets. I infer, from these two conditions, that education which attempts to program me with information is a futile and justifiably resentful enterprise.

May I point out to you in relation to our topic today, that the futilities I have described are directly associated, which is to say that they are direct outcomes, of the fact that virtually all of the teaching I have endured in my lifetime has been principally designed to fulfill content goals when, indeed, it had any explicit goals at all. I put it to you, that if, in fact, you and I possess intellectual power at this moment . . . it is largely in spite of rather than because of the schooling I have had until now. Whether or not that is convincing to you, I submit that it remains, nevertheless, that the foliation of contemporary knowledge must certainly reduce our optimism relative to the feasibility of placing the highest priority on teaching content. There is just too much to learn.

I might point out, paranthetically, that two additional reasons why I have forgotten so much or learned so little are (1) that it was only fortuitous when the stuff I was taught corresponded to my conscious and unconscious need systems that required certain kinds of intellectual and symbolic nourishment for my psychological development to proceed normally -- and that was my teachers' fault because they were naive, by and large, with regard to my developmental requirements -- and (2) that I have forgotten a great many things and a great number of my proficiencies have atrophied because my regnant needs have changed as I have moved from place to place developmentally -- and that that is nobody's fault but is, rather, a fact of life. I'll close these parentheses because issues of this sort are really grist for another series of lectures.

Having prepared one baseline on which to introduce consideration of process goals namely, the proliferation of contemporary knowledge, I will now develop a second argument for process education before I speak directly of definitions and examples. I refer you to a phenomenon that some of you may already have heard us describe as "incidental learning." By that term, we refer to the spectrum of learnings that accrue in all classroom situations as the partial result of teaching behavior that was not deliberately intended at the outset. For example, think of this situation, which you have all experienced in common, where I am lecturing to you this afternoon. Despite the fact that my process goals for this lecture have compelled me to select certain terms rather than others, to order my sequence of concepts in certain ways and to engage in certain didactic gambits, it would be fair to say that my content goals have been more obvious until now.

My obvious intent has been to communicate certain ideas, certain terminology, certain issues, certain problems, and certain substantive information to you. I began by telling you that my principal objective was to present a model of teaching and supervision and I gave you my reasons for wanting to do that. It is probably clear that I began with a set of content goals and have attempted to implement those goals, i.e., to establish that content, by what I have said to you.

Let me make some guesses about things you may have been learning here today that I might not have intended insofar as my goals were framed in terms of content and academic outcomes. I'll limit my guessing to categories of learning rather than to specific learnings in order to reduce the likelihood of teaching you irrelevant things retroactively. One hunch is that as the result of my stylistic patterns and expressive idiosyncracies, you're learning things about me: my background, my interests, my competencies and incompetencies, my verbal habits, my ideas about lecturing, my powers of logical reasoning, my intellectual acuity, my self-concept, my relationships to other members of this faculty, my tastes and biases and so forth. You may also have learned things about yourselves, particularly in relationship to this institute. The very fact that I am lecturing and that, for the most part, Dr. Cogan has lectured in this seminar, undoubtedly has created certain expectations in you and has led to certain impressions of what kind of a place this is, of what your roles in it are like, and of what our perceptions are of those factors. You have probably learned and are continuing to learn about how you fit into this scheme of things and about what possibilities exist for your roles here to become modified.

Let me shift to examples from other situations. A hypothetical teacher consistently repeats children's responses to questions. An "incidental learning" for the pupils might be, "It is unnecessary for us to listen to anybody in here besides the teacher because, inevitably, she will say everything that's important." A second teacher consistently gives homework assignments and asks the children to bring various things to school and then fails to make use of the completed assignments and ignores what the pupils have brought. May they not be learning not to do homework in this situation? A third teacher constantly interrupts pupils' responses to make grammatical corrections and stresses terminology in her teaching. It should not surprise us if her pupils learn that wording and specialized vocabulary are more important than conceptual understanding. A fourth teacher repeatedly requires his students to produce correct answers to questions that he asks. In time his students regard school as a place where they go to transact with other people's problems rather than to formulate problems of their own. A fifth teacher perpetually talks in the first person: "I want you to turn to page fifty; Will you look that up for me? Your job is to convince me of that." If you asked them, his students would probably tell you that what they do in school is for the teacher's sake and that to be successful there the trick is to manage to please him. A sixth teacher rewards pupils for guessing, correctly, what he had in mind. A seventh teacher requires children to be scrupulously polite in their remarks to her but is sarcastic and vituperative in addressing certain pupils. An eighth teacher gives reading assignments but never structures situations in which the pupils are required to demonstrate knowledge that they have read. A ninth teacher uses stereotyped and undifferentiated rewards by saying "very good" to almost every pupil response. As you consider these examples it may become apparent that the integrity of their content goals notwithstanding, the teachers in question are often self-defeating by behaving in ways that produce incidental learnings which are at cross-purposes to their teaching objectives.

Although I have used negative examples for dramatic purposes, it is equally true that incidental learnings can fortify intended productive outcomes. When teaching behavior promotes favorable impressions about oneself, one's participation in school and in study, one's reasons for learning, the teacher's own rationality and consistency, etc., then it is likely to catalyze the learning it set out to produce.

It is also true that incidental learning, as we conceive it, can be related to relevant learning, that is, to the substantive content of the teaching. By my presentation and treatment of a topic, I can enable my students to develop insights about it and to find latent issues and problems in it of which I had not been explicitly aware as I taught.

In summary, I have defined incidental learning as learning that takes place in response to unplanned aspects of my teaching. It can be relevant to the material or it can be irrelevant. It can have positive effects which implement my conscious objectives or it can have negative effects which mitigate against them. In any event, it is accidental, I have not planned for it, and, in most cases, I will be unaware of its characteristics even after it has taken place. We have discovered time and again that when we confront teachers with such aspects of their teaching behavior as I have described, and have recited verbatim data from our observations, they are generally surprised to discover behavioral patterns of which they had been unaware before and are astonished to discover the inadvertent learnings they have promoted among the pupils -- when we present empirical evidence in the form of pupil feedback.

I think that at this point the stage has been properly set for a direct examination of process goals. The argument can be stated in the form of a condition: If there is too much knowledge to teach both to prospective teachers and then, in turn, to their pupils, if programming with information is largely futile because time and disuse engenders "forgetting," and if, typically, learnings take place as the partial result of unplanned aspects of our teaching, aspects, that is, that are unplanned as long as our planning has been exclusively in terms of content objectives, then it follows that teaching must include means of equipping learners with intellectual capacities that endure longer than facts which are easily forgotten, it must result in selected proficiencies that are relatively few in number but which are transcendental in nature and, I remind you, this is for two reasons, namely (1) that there are more facts extant than can be learned and (2) even if we were able to learn everything, much of our knowledge would be obsolete by the time we acquired it, and, finally, teaching must incorporate strategies that reduce the likelihood of incidental learnings which are at cross-purposes to rationally determined teaching outcomes. By the generic term "process goals" we define a set of teaching strategies designed to satisfy these conditions.

I will argue that the notion of process goals gives rise to the possibility of teaching that is more efficient than that which aims solely at giving information and to the possibility that what have heretofore existed as incidental learnings can be brought within the domain of purposeful control and planning by teachers. In addition to the twofold demonstration of need that I have attempted, I will rationalize each of the distinct process goals of which I speak specifically. I give you a word of warning: take care not to succumb to the pitfalls that we have, frequently, in our own thinking. Do not reify the specific process goals. The processes of which I will speak are hypothetical constructs. They are not directly demonstrable entities. Secondly, do not imagine that there is necessary conflict between process and content goals. It is not a question of process versus content. As you will see, it is rather a problem of redefining teaching goals so that by considering process and content in terms of each other we can generate a model that satisfies the conditions I have suggested. And, finally, even though much of my talk will be about seemingly separate process goals which will be taken one at a time, we actually believe that effective teaching construes the specific processes as being dynamically interrelated and concurrent in their development and functioning.

As far as I can tell, a great many teaching-learning processes and a great many strategies for planning to elicit certain learning processes -- which is another way of saying "process goals" -- have as yet been undiscovered and unnamed. It seems likely that teachers will have to formulate process goals on the basis of factors that are peculiar to their situations, to their students and to themselves such that no exhaustive list could ever be constructed. The few examples that I'll discuss were originated by Glen Heathers, formerly of the Fels Institute at Antioch University and were elaborated by John Worthen, presently of the University of Delaware who was our colleague for two years at Harvard-Lexington and who has written a paper that will be available to you in this program. The writings of Bruner, Brandwein and Schwab, which I have listed on the board are relevant supplementary readings, although they utilize a somewhat different vocabulary.

Worthen speaks of seven process goals which are tool skills, self-initiated learning, inquiry, self-evaluation, self-as-process, use of situation and creativity. Let me talk about some of them. Let me talk about "inquiry" and, the related process, "self-initiated learning." Please notice that in most cases I will be unable to talk about any given process goal without implicit or explicit reference to some of the others. Incidentally "creativity" has been put outside the system so that instead of being one of seven process goals, according to changes in Worthen's thinking, it is intended to characterize the state of affairs that occurs when the other processes have been established and converge in integrated, creative functioning.

We begin with the notion that in addition to planning certain content goals, a teacher can press for other kinds of outcomes as well. In a lesson on history, for example, besides wanting her pupils to learn a particular sequence of battles and political readjustments, the teacher can deliberately arm herself with strategies designed to induce learnings that empower the pupils to come to grips more effectively with historical data. They can be taught to search for cause-effect relationships and can develop criteria for determining whether specific conditions are causal. They can be taught some differences between perceptions and inferences and can be equipped with skills for evaluating the integrity of historical literature. They can be taught to initiate their own inquiries relative to historical method and to historical evidence. They can be taught to recognize and to evaluate which of their existing intellectual skills are adequate for dealing in various ways with historical material and what skills need yet to be developed to compensate for their present limitations. They can be taught skills of self-analysis which enable them to evaluate their own achievements of mastery over certain conceptual problems and to be relatively independent of other people's judgments about how well they are doing. They can be taught that school is a place where their own ideas and personal products are valued and respected and where examined errors will be rewarded as well as unqualified successes. They can be taught that their learning is for the sake of wisdom or pleasure or utility rather than to satisfy the teacher. They can be taught relationships between history and other disciplines and about the applicability and inapplicability of their skills in history to their problems in other areas. The learning situation can be structured so that self-initiated inquiry will be promoted, so that the pleasures of pursuing one's own lines of inquiry and of discovering one's own solutions can be experienced, and so that the pupils learn about themselves in relationship to learning and to content as well as the content.

We maintain that teaching for self-initiated inquiry should be awarded a very high premium and invite you to examine our postulate. We postulate that inasmuch as it is impossible to teach all things, or most things, or even, perhaps, any special thing to the limits of relevant knowledge, that it makes sense, instead, to engage in teaching which deliberately tries to develop inquiry skills by rewarding and rehearsing actual inquiries and which motivates pupils to initiate their own inquiries and to become habituated to inquiry as a style of intellectual life. Specific examples of such teaching can be found in my document on case materials which has already been distributed to some of you and which will be made available to everyone in this program.

Our postulate derives from antecedent reflections as follows: traditionally, as your own experience will confirm, the premium in school has been on answers and, particularly, upon answers to questions asked by the teacher or by the text. I propose that whereas a subset of answers exists such that from the set of all possible answers to all possible questions the answers of this subset are heuristic, that is, they lead to further inquiry which, in turn, generates additional answers, and so on, that for the most part, most of the answers one generally encounters in school are, in effect, intellectual closures. The answer, E equals MC squared, is heuristic and exceptional. Its ramifications are manifold. The answer "The capitol of the United States is Washington, D.C." is, by itself, an ending. It doesn't go anywhere. It is right or it is wrong. It leaves nothing to keep inquiry alive. If you agree that questions are enlivening because they have futurity and compel activity, then I propose that to a large extent we have managed to kill off our learners in traditional education, answer by answer. The metaphor is not new or original. It comes to us from the Greeks.

And, if it is true that, in fact, most questions and answers are created by teachers and by textbooks rather than by pupils, I propose that one consequence is that the brimming inquisitiveness of five year olds is progressively inhibited by schooling which fails to provide opportunities and rewards for framing one's own questions. The opportunity to become practiced at initiating lines of inquiry is forfeited to priorities on answers. Answers are like dollar bills: They're good things to get a hold of. Questions are merely formal necessities. One problem of our teaching is that most often we fail to plumb the generative potentialities of the answers that pupils do produce. In any event, that their desires and capabilities for framing questions atrophy under our system of education is a patently obvious fact.

I can direct you to two consequences. The first is that although we may enunciate our desires to motivate pupils toward continued self-initiated learning, and, incidentally, every teachers' manual that I have seen has that pretention, in truth, we engage in the kind of teaching that fosters the pupils' dependencies upon us to frame the inquiries that keep them headed somewhere. This is a classic example of incidental learning that defeats what we'd really like to accomplish. Moreover, the situation is complicated by a psychological handicap that many of us have at least to some degree, and that is how easily we are seduced by the narcissistic gratifications of having people depend upon us. How rewarding it can be to be the fountainhead of learning in one's classroom, to be the power without which the machinery ceases to operate. In its most extreme manifestations, we enter teaching -- as some physicians enter medicine and lawyers enter law and social workers enter casework -- with a rescue fantasy. A florid Peace-Corps orientation. In the teacher's case, we are out to reclaim the stupids of the world. Obviously, I have overstated the condition. But just as obviously it seems true that we do generally nurture dependency rather than its opposite in traditional answer-oriented teaching, despite what we say; that our reasons for that may be determined to some degree by our own emotional requirements, and that, in any event, our attempts to promote intellectual autonomy in learners are often frustrated by our common modes of teaching them.

Several examples that come to me are (1) the frequent professorial complaint that the students are passive clods who seem to have been emasculated of any talent to engage in research on their own or to produce productive problems; (2) the recent New York Times Magazine article about higher education in France which depicted French professors and their students' perceptions of them as autocratic, authoritarian, lecture-giving omniscients upon whom the students rely totally for intellectual input -- I can't see anything particularly French in that condition -- and, (3) an experiment by the psychologist Richard Alpert before his notorious departure from Harvard. Alpert was scheduled to teach a course, I believe in educational psychology, and, beforehand, he advertised that the course would be handled in two sections. One section was to be designed for students who had special interests in exercising autonomy and leadership. Just like toys that are advertised "for exceptionally bright children," the section sold well and registration was large. On the opening day of class Alpert entered the classroom several minutes late, turned to the assembled students, and said, "You've indicated some special desire to function autonomously. Go ahead, I'm done" at which point he sat down and pretended to read a newspaper for the next several weeks. As you might expect, the initial student reaction was one of dumbfounded silence. And it should not surprise you to learn that their mute stupidity persisted for several meetings until they couldn't stand waiting any longer and finally developed one of the richest courses they had ever experienced. In a less ambitious way, I have attempted exactly the same device at another university and discovered precisely the same, learned dependency among the pupils. Without me they were helpless -- until I confronted them with that fact and they began to do something about it.

A second consequence is that as long as we deprive pupils of the chance to learn, systematically, how to learn, or, in other words, how to set problems and how to initiate and pursue inquiries by themselves, as long as we allow them to plug intellectual umbilical cords into their teachers, as long, that is, as we allow their dependencies upon us to persist, we impede their achievement of a fundamental component of human viability, of intellectual viability in the face of expanding knowledge, and that is the crucial capacity to be able to ask ingenious questions of unknown bodies of knowledge in order to make them intelligible and wieldy for us.

Such is the kind of thinking that underlies Worthen's selection of "inquiry" as a process goal and our commitment to the proposition that the development of inquiry skills should be explicitly planned for in teaching.

By planning for "tool skills," Worthen means to suggest that capacities to learn generally and capacities to learn some specific content efficiently, require the establishment of certain functional skills that vary from time to time and from situation to situation but which are frequently overlooked as specific goals in teachers' planning. For example, we often observe that teachers elect to deploy pupils into group and committee work without first diagnosing and teaching for such skills of group activity as listening, contributing material that promotes the continuity of discussion and reserving material that is digressive, and so forth. It is not an unusual experience, even in graduate seminars, to observe sessions where each of a dozen participants has spoken but where, to all practical intent, each of the dozen students has indulged in a soliloquy that failed to be in any way responsive to things that had been said before or were likely to be said afterwards. The phenomenon reminds one of that stage of children's play when, although they are congregated in groups, they are, essentially, playing solitary games and are acting out their individual fantasies -- without notice or regard for one another. Tool skills, then, are the functional and intellectual processes that accompany learning and for which, we argue, teaching must specifically aim.

Related process goals are"self-evaluation on a criterion of mastery" and "self as process." In the simplest way, the notion here is that teaching should help learners to know more about themselves in relationship to their learning. To make it a little more complex, I suggest that one way of rationalizing teaching that includes self-as-content is to imagine that all information, all data, all stimuli in the universe that we assimilate, are mediated by our own egos and are accommodated to our already existing organismic structures. In other words, my self, my own system of cognitive and affective and perceptual processes is the lens through which everything from within and from without must pass as I engage intellectually. It follows, therefore, that as the mediating organism, I should understand myself as completely as I can.

Let me refer you, for a moment, to the phenomenon that educators loosely describe as a "learning block." Some learners just simply cannot learn algebra, or spelling, or German; they will never, apparently, be able to learn algebra or spelling or German; and we say that they have blocks in these fields. Unfortunately, teachers are often unable to shrug their shoulders and let it go at that, bacause blocks, so-called, occasionally express themselves as early as the first or second grade and it is impossible to terminate pupils' educations at such infantile stages of their learning. As though it were a conditioned reflex, when faced with such evidence of blocking, the teacher generally arranges for the child to receive special assistance in the troublesome subject, and, in one way or another, a frontal assault is made on the content until the child shows satisfactory evidence of learning or until the interested parties are frustrated beyond caring, and capitulate.

In a great many cases which I have wound up treating in the psychiatric clinic, learners have proven to be refractory to the most insistent, rigid, simplified practice techniques, on the one hand, and to the most supportive, child-centered, motivational techniques on the other. The blocks remain. Although I cannot claim any unequivocal measure of success, I can report to you that when treatment became centered not so much upon the algebra as upon the child, and that when treatment focused more on the highly libininized symbolic associations that various mathematical processes had for the patient rather than upon the solution of simultaneous equations, blocks that seemed impervious to mathematical treatment occasionally yielded to psychotherapy.

By this example, I mean to suggest that in some instances it is graphically clear that disorders of cognitive machinery, or, in other words, of the learner's functioning "self," lay at the root of the problems that seemed to inhere in external objects, and that, as a general rule, it makes sense to include awareness of one's own procceses as they operate in connection to academic learning. I concur in Worthen's argument, at least for the time being, that one's power to cope with substantive content is enhanced by awareness of one's intellectual processes such, that, in a word, one knows what one is doing. Some psychological positions that are both lucid and sympathetic to our own can be found in the volume entitled "Productive Thinking" by the gestaltist Max Wertheimer, and in "Children Discover Arithmetic," by Catherine Stern who was one of his disciples.

With regard to self-evaluation, which is subsumed by "self-as-process," the latter concept dealing more broadly with the capacity to manipulate one's own processes autonomously, I again call upon your experiences for testimony to one of the rationales to which we subscribe. Partly, I suppose, as a result of my parents' naivite about child-rearing and partly as a result of my schooling, I concluded adolescence in a frenzy of doubt concerning my worthwhileness, my talents, my limitations, and found myself unable to answer the question, "Just who are you, anyhow?" Although the problem may have been more pronounced in my life than in yours, I floundered during the following years and found myself becoming progressively more dependent upon other people's evaluations of me than upon assessments I could make of myself. When my professors were complimentary I was manic. When they expressed disapprobation, I was depressed. When people seemed to think well of me, I was euphoric. When they didn't, I was crushed. I became so sensitive to how I was perceived, that even frictional encounters with bus drivers and waitresses left me unnerved and unhappy. My emotional crests and troughs were more largely determined by my perceptions of other people's perceptions of me than upon direct evidence emanating from self-evaluation and self-analysis.

My example is intended to express that condition in which one is virtually enslaved by external judgments of himself upon which he has learned to depend and where one has somehow relinquished one's own conclusions, based upon direct experience, on one's powers and deficits. In the context of schooling, I believe that it is generally true that teaching strategies engender the unfortunate state of affairs I have described. Whether pupils are right or wrong, good or bad, bright or stupid, effective or ineffective, on the right track or off it, improving or regressing and socially competent or incompetent depends, by and large, upon the grades, the reports, the remarks, the scorns, the smiles -- in effect -- the rewards that the teacher gives or withholds. An effect, I believe, is to diminish learners' abilities to know about such things for themselves. Instead of learning to be self-regulating, they learn to depend upon external control and manipulation. Another effect, is that when self-evaluation recedes because, in the system of things, it is irrelevant and inconsequential, learners are alienated from possibilities of experiencing the incomparable pleasure of knowing, deep down inside, that they have done something well, that they have performed adequately, and that that is good. This failure in teaching is inevitably related to the practice of centering all questions and answers in the teacher, for when that is the case the criteria of evaluation are secret and they remain mysterious as long as evaluational data are inaccessible to the learners.

My position, therefore, is that along with other process goals we have considered, self-evaluation should be incorporated explicitly into teaching plans and, logically and inescapably, should be as continuingly present as a deliberate teaching objective as self-initiated inquiry. It follows that skills of self-evaluation must be taught. Even when processes of content analysis are developed explicitly, my experience suggests that the transfer of analytic techniques to the context of oneself will not occur spontaneously -- especially because of the emotional loadings that are more wont to attach to one's self than to one's subjects. The functional touch-points must be made articulate by careful and sophisticated teaching. I refer you especially to the last two excerpts from my case materials for positive examples of the kind of teaching in question.

Finally, while we are still within the framework of a teaching model, two salient implications remain. The first is that process goals, like content goals, require a deliberately structured learning milieu in order to be fulfilled. Indeed, the word "goals" connotes both deliberation and deliberateness. The second implication relates to selection of content for teaching.

You will recall that at the outset I disclaimed any necessary donflict between content and process goals and suggested that this is not an instance of competing philosophies. I return to that issue at this point to suggest that when teachers are trained to the understandings and techniques of process education and when process goals are as standard a part of lesson planning as content goals, then both content and process will be selected in terms of the possibilities of each to be vehicular in development of the other and in reference to selection criteria which derive more generally from models and findings of developmental psychology than from a priori decisions of what is valuable to learn.

I must stress that it is unnecessary to await an educational panacea wherein, for example, curriculums would be known in terms of their cognitive and symbolic developmental advantages, for the commencement of process education. Even in conjunction with curricular givens, process goals can be formulated and implemented as, indeed, we have seen them, successfully. As a matter of fact, it seems to me that if panaceas are to be forthcoming, the empirical information that is required for rational development of curriculums will emerge from executions of process strategies and consequent discoveries of curricular possibilities and impossibilities.

We arrive now at the second part of this lecture, in which I will develop the supervisory analogy to process teaching. I think it is unnecessary to recapitulate the teaching paradigm point by point in order to demonstrate the analogy. Instead, I will move from what is already established here to the question of implications for clinical supervision.

The first notion that strikes me is that although it may be less common an occurrence nowadays, it is true to some extent that educational supervision proceeds on the basis of content goals and is fairly innocent of planning for process outcomes. I mean this in two senses: it does not stress process for the pupils nor is it alert to possibilities for affecting process goals in the supervisory relationship. Whether or not that is the case usually, it is much more certain that most supervisors are not explicitly aware of the probable incidental learnings that obtain as a result of inadvertent aspects of their professional behavior. At best, Cogan's reference to democratic supervision and supervision motivated by good human relations, depict naive and, to our minds, misconstrued expectations that favorable process learnings will occur which conduce to desired supervisory objectives under conditions of democracy and friendliness. If systematic supervision ignores process learnings and fails to plan for them, its failures, in all likelihood, will be the same as those I have ascribed to analogous teaching practices.

Let's consider the question of dependency versus autonomy, in relation to supervision which incorporates the process goals: "inquiry, self-initiated learning" and "self-evaluation on a criterion of mastery." Whereas, in our view, systematic clinical supervision is a constant requirement for good teaching, it is equally true that supervisory personnel are inadequate in number and in professional competency to fulfill the needs of a majority of teachers. Even where well trained clinical supervisors are employed, their scarcity and economic considerations will prevent them from engaging in supervision of all of the teachers as often and as systematically as might be desired.

It consequently behooves supervisors to aim for the establishment of ongoing, self-analytic techniques, in the teachers. Given the circumstances in which total coverage is impossible, it protects the interests of good teaching for teachers to be equipped to analyze their own teaching in the absence of clinical supervisors. Perhaps a more important reason for teaching teachers the techniques and advantages of self-analysis, is that the more they become capable of analyzing teaching, the greater the share of initiation they can assume in supervisory conferences. And, in turn, the more the teacher can initiate in supervision, the more likely he is to experience the satisfactions associated with personal mastery and to be sufficiently autonomous and self-reliant to feel unthreatened by the supervisor's judgments. In my opinion, it is less unnaturally restrictive for supervisors to be able to render value judgments than it is for them to eschew that practice at all costs and to force inappropriate induction when more directive techniques would do as well. As long as a teacher is primarily dependent upon external evaluation, the threats deriving from such evaluation will compel his supervisor to move cautiously. When, however, a teacher relies, basically, upon self-evaluation and can use other people's perspectives by testing his own perceptions against them, his supervisor can be more agressive in broaching analyses and in dealing with relevant problems.

If it is true that supervisees become most anxious about supervision when they are basically dependent upon external judgments and external rewards for evaluative information about their teaching, it is additionally true that supervisory strategies can be undertaken which promote the processes in question and which thereby achieve the effect of reducing anxieties by moving teachers toward a condition of more autonomous functioning. An example is the strategy of group supervision. I am indebted to Dr. Cogan for the metaphor which expresses the idea I have in mind, namely, that a principal advantage of group supervision is the same which underlies our system of trial by jury. Although the analogy breaks down because, of course, the supervisee is not on trial, at least not from our frame of reference, we think that it holds in the sense that he is protected from the blindness or caprice of any individual supervisor and generally comes to realize that as supervision proceeds and as that feature is made explicit for him.

If a desirable outcome of teaching is to increase individual learners' intellectual viability by developing their potentialities for autonomy, it seems to me that the same outcome produces the same advantages in supervision of teachers. You will remember that I have argued that one component of intellectual viability is the capacity to make new areas of knowledge intelligible by attacking them with productive, self-initiated inquiries. For teachers, the behavioral data generated in their classrooms represents one such area of unknowns. Inquiry skills should be as much a process goal of supervision as they are of teaching. In fact, our experience suggests that both teaching and supervision are

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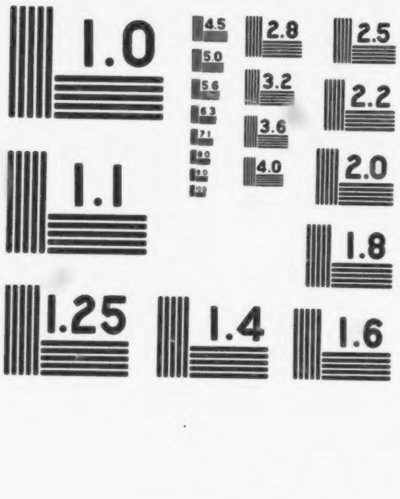
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most effective when the principles that guide them are parallel and when the parallels between them are articulated with the teacher. Moreover, such professional consistency simplifies the intellectual requirements of supervision. The possibility of exemplifying practices under consideration and of referring, explicitly, to such exemplifications, represents a didactic expediency for the supervisor.

A valuable technique in both teaching and in supervision is what counseling psychologists have named the "process confrontation." Supervisory teaching -- as well as teaching in general -- can often be enriched and expedited by confronting the learner with his own intellectual processes such that, for example, the role you play consists partly of showing the supervisee the implicit reasoning processes, the assumptions, the stereotypy, the perceptual distortions and the intellectual biases that are reflected, from time to time, in his strategies, his planning and his teaching. The process confrontation is also a useful device when it is employed to demonstrate the interactional processes that have operated up until the moment of confrontation: The comments, "Let's look at what we've been doing," or "Let's examine the way we have been reasoning," or "Why is it that we seem unable to respond to the question," often clarify and unblock dialogues that have bogged down.

In summary, inquiry skills enable the teacher to understand the circumstances and events and inherent problems of his teaching most readily. Self-initiated learning and self-initiated analyses enable teachers to pursue professional problems in the absence of their supervisors and lead them to assume greater initiative in supervision conferences. Increased initiative in supervision is likely to lead to increased motivation for supervision and to the establishment of ongoing self-evaluation as a professional modus vivendi. Self-evaluation, in turn, can yield autonomy and pleasures that are impossible to experience otherwise. I have suggested that insofar as supervision can be construed as a species of teaching and to the extent that general teaching paradigms are applicable, under those circumstances, to supervision, a didactic expedient obtains in the constant possibility of articulating parallelisms between the two practices. I might add, from my own experience, that it generally inspires supervisees' confidence in supervisors when it is perceived that the supervisor is, himself, proficient in process education. By that proficiency i.e., by the successful execution of process goals in the context of supervision, the supervisor acquits himself vis-a-vis the challenge "put up or shut up."

Finally, let me speak of the supervisor's own processes and of our process goals for you people in this institute. According to our notion of parallelism, I advance the hypothesis that a third congruent dimension exists, in reference to the supervisor's behavior, that has implications for programs which train supervisors as well as for your supervisory practice in this practicum and elsewhere.

One condition of our success here lies in whether we are able to communicate certain concepts and certain substantive information to you effectively. This criterion relates to our content goals. Another part of our success, and in some sense, perhaps, the more important part, relates to our ability to engender or to sharpen your professional and intellectual competencies in supervision, competencies which transcend any particular, specific, content.

If we achieve our process goals successfully, your outcomes will be first, to initiate your own lines of inquiry into problems of supervision as you practice it and develop theoretical and operational models for it and as you train prospective supervisors. Our strategy is to implement that process goal by exemplifying in our own behavior before you the skills and spirit of inquiry that we wish for you, by structuring the seminar and practicum so that they provide you with optimal and multiple opportunities to join us in our inquiries and to initiate inquiries of your own, and by rewarding your originality in inquiry in appropriate ways -- one of which consists of our hearty support for inquiries you develop unsuccessfully but which provide you with relevant insights as you re-examine your processes retrospectively. Second, you will have become reasonably practiced in the tool skills of clinical supervision: data collection, analysis of behavioral data, formulation of supervisory strategies, versatility in managing conferences, application of appropriate techniques drawn from a substantial repertoire of techniques, planning, reformulation, and so on, and you will have well defined understandings of skills that require further development and of appropriate means to that end. Your tool skills will derive from your guided participation in the practicum, from your assumptions of leadership in observation teams, and from the models we represent for you in these opening days of the summer when we have assumed the major responsibility for conducting the cycle.

Third, you will have begun to experience the habit and techniques and appetite for self-analysis and for self-evaluation. Our principal means for bringing that about are to expose our own processes to you, as examples, as we engage in self-evaluation, to involve you in group supervision and in the practice of reflexive analysis which, in the elementary program, we call the post-mortem phase of the cycle, and to supervise your self-evaluations as you undertake them openly, in front of us. To my mind, the esthetic culmination of this program, will consist of the autonomy you develop in supervision and in the realistic professional self-perceptions you evolve as self-evaluation and consequent awareness of self-as-process free you from us. When you know, explicitly, what you are doing and can decide for yourself what is strong and what is defective about it, when you can relinquish your dependency upon our assessments of you because your confidence in your own assessments allows it, then our process goals in this program will have been fulfilled. . . .

APPENDIX D

Clinical Supervision and Psychotherapy.

(Excerpt from lecture by Robert Goldhammer,
July 1964, the University of Pittsburgh.)

One problem, for someone who supervises me is that, as a result of certain features of my upbringing and of artifacts they engendered in my personality, symbols -- by which I mean issues, problems, words, ideas, relationships, etc. -- which are affectively neutral for you may be emotionally loaded for me. As you set out to represent yourself or to present issues that seem to you to be innocuous, I, in turn, am quick to mobilize certain defenses to protect myself against things you are doing that have special symbolic significance for me that you don't know about -- because whereas our symbolic languages may be the same, our private systems of symbols may be quite different in terms of what is threatening and what is not. For your problems in dealing with sibling situations and with rivalries among your colleagues I may have equally severe problems in relating to authority figures and in handling "status anxiety."

Your desire for expanded knowledge and introspective analysis may be countermanded by my fear of discovery because, having witnessed or overheard family secrets being acted out in my youth, and having been traumatized by what I discovered, I am compelled to constrict my knowledge and to inhibit inquiry because of my archaic fear of "finding out." For me the unknown holds special, predetermined, terrors.

Your associations to any given object or relationship can be pleasurable while my associations to the same stimulus fill me with disgust and dread. An example in our culture is the snake -- beautiful for some of us, terrible for others.

What I am saying, in effect, and what is fundamentally necessary for me to communicate right now, is the notion that at a level of symbolic experience, although you and I may be talking a shared language together, it may be, nonetheless, that we are far apart in reference to the possibility of shared symbolic and emotional meanings. Although, in all likelihood, you will not often encounter such extreme disparities, less extreme differences are abundant in human communication and may be determining factors in relationships as intense as those we have in clinical supervision. This is one problem of "individual differences" that the supervisor encounters.

I will proceed, now, to demonstrate the need for examining supervision in relation to treatment paradigms by formulating examples of supervisory problems which we will look at by asking what the conditions would have to be for them to be treatable.

You have heard Dr. Cogan use the term "superficial" to describe the level of behavioral modification at which clinical supervision is intended to operate -- at least a propos of our present competencies. I concur and affirm the historical fact that our practice of clinical supervision has modified superficial behaviors and has modified behavior superficially. By "superficial behavior" I refer to behavioral tendencies that are not so deeply embedded in personal necessity that they cannot be given up with relative ease. By "superficial modifications" I mean to suggest that such modifications as we have been able to affect have been at a "symptomatic" level, if you will, rather than at the deeper level of restructuring and of realigning structures of personality.

Whereas we have occasionally been able to eliminate patterns of behavior, at best the resulting changes have consisted of symptom-reductions or of the condition in which one symptom is exchanged for another. Perhaps I should make it clear, at this point, that I use the word "symptom" not so much to denote an expression of underlying pathology, as it does in medicine, but rather as an expression of underlying personality repleat with its idiosyncratic needs, and so on, which are reflected in behavior. To use the medical analogy, symptom-reduction is the kind of phenomenon that accompanies the use of tranquilizers. Although tranquilizers may take the edge off anxiety, they do not "cure" the factors that produce anxiety. The phenomenon of symptom-exchange brings to mind the example in which one deliberately curbs one's eating in order to lose weight and, consequently, one's oral requirements substitute increased smoking to produce gratifications of tensions that were formerly reduced by eating. One expression of the need has been exchanged for another.

Thus, we have arrived at a stage in our thinking where Cogan's proposition that clinical supervision is intended to treat superficial behaviors and to affect superficial behavioral modifications, according to my definitions, is not so much a proposition any more as it is a question. The question, now, is whether or not clinical supervision can and should attempt to achieve basic changes in professional behavior by means of therapeutic treatment of personality rather than through relatively superficial strategies for symptom-reduction. We do not mean to imply by the question that we necessarily want to do so. We ask the question because our experiences as clinical supervisors force us to.

Every time we supervise, at this stage of our development, we move progressively closer to recognizing the built-in limits of clinical supervision as we practice it. Recognition of the limits forces us to question whether or not we should be willing to settle for them. We need to know what possibilities exist for more versatile and potent forms of supervisory treatment, i.e., of treatment that extends the limits we encounter presently. We need to know about the conceptual and professional competencies that would be required for treatment in depth. We need to clarify our distinctions between depth and superficiality and to discover whether, in truth, we are dealing with a dichotomy or a continuum such that, for example, it might be possible to treat in greater depth than we do presently but not so deeply as the psychoanalyst does. We need to develop diagnostic criteria and diagnostic acuity that empower us to make rational treatment decisions. Our treatment repertoires must be expanded to include sufficiently numerous strategies to enable us to engage in the treatment of choice, that is, in the most appropriate treatment strategy for every specific case. We need more ideas and more emprical evidence relative to possibilities for utilizing psychiatric personnel as supervisory adjuncts and in programs of training for educational supervisors. And at every step of reformulating our roles, of extending our professional functions, we have to recognize the ethical issues that obtain and to have a comprehensive grasp of the dangers and advantages that accrue and of the balance between them. Although, in some ways, Vance Packard's recent book The Naked Society impressed me as an irresponsible and destructive piece of writing, I am able to share his indignation in regard to advancing encroachments upon personal privacy and to be wary of the inhumane and unethical concomitants that may be latent in the extended supervisory roles that we are committed to study.

Let me try to illustrate these problems in concrete terms. I suspect that to do so will enable you to relate your own experiences to these issues more readily than an abstract discussion will.

My guess is that by this time everyone of you has participated in cycles of supervision where, at least to some degree, the supervisee seemed refractory to your treatment, where the intern did not understand you and/or did not modify his teaching behavior in ways that were consistent with your intended supervisory outcomes.

For the moment, let's ignore your psychological characteristics and your personality structures and concentrate on the intern's. That you have supervised in groups and have, yourselves, had your supervision supervised by groups gives me some confidence in focusing away from you temporarily, although I am honestly unsure of whether that is really justifiable or not.

Anyhow, let's consider what factors may have been operating to frustrate your supervision. Keep in mind that at this stage of the discussion our reservoir of theory is so barren that the examples I give here are merely intended to be suggestive rather than to be representations of the truth. My examples will be more like caricatures than photographs.

Let's imagine that you have observed Sally's teaching and have discovered a predominant quality of egocentricism. Some salient patterns are (1) all of her talk is in the first person: "I want you to turn to page ten; I would like you to turn in your papers to me at the end of the period; Will you move up to the front? It's too hard for me to teach you at the back of the room," etc., (2) Sally's own value judgments predominate: "It is important for you to learn this; Good children cooperate with the other members of their family; Urban redevelopment is bad because it dislocates many families;" (3) all questions and problems originate from Sally. There was no instance of pupils initiating their own issues; (4) Sally often requests pupils to guess what she has in mind, "What do you think we're going to do today?" and employs a great many "fill-in" questions in her teaching, "When the face of the community seems different from day to day we call that -- John?" -- and John says, "change." In other words, Sally displays what we have come to call the "I've got a secret syndrome;" and (5) the interactional patterns in Sally's class are exclusively teacher-to-pupil, such that pupil-to-pupil conversation never occurs and all rewards, which, incidentally, are fairly stereotyped, "very goods," emanate from the teacher.

Before you observed Sally's teaching, your observation subteam spent an hour with her reviewing her teaching plans, suggesting changes, raising questions about underlying rationales, and so forth. The lesson looked good on paper, beforehand, but you did not anticipate the patterns that, subsequently, you discovered.

In your strategy session, you laid out the observational data and identified the patterns that I named a minute ago. You decided that inasmuch as the five or six patterns all seemed to relate to the quality of teacher-centeredness that prevailed, you would cite all of them, along with appropriate data, and would use "teacher-centeredness" as the organizing principle of the conference. You decided that the major strength of Sally's lesson was that the sequence of content had been well planned and that the plan had been followed unambiguously. Pupils' responses to questions at the end of the lesson indicated that, for the most part, they had learned the content Sally had wanted them to. Her content goals, therefore, seemed to have been achieved successfully. Your reason for addressing the problem of teacher-centeredness is that you are afraid that one incidental learning that might be established in the pupils is that "School is a place where I go to learn and to do things for the teacher," and you are afraid of the feelings and competencies and experiences that might be forfeited to that perception.

In the supervision conference, having decided in advance how to deploy the various members of the observation team, you proceed to follow the strategy you developed beforehand. Although Sally introduces a few issues of her own, they fit, pretty well, into the agenda of ideas that you hoped to follow and everything seemed to work out smoothly. When the conference was ending, you asked Sally what she would try to work on in her teaching the next day, and she replied "I will try not to use the word "I" so often and will plan to have more pupils participate by inventing their own problems."

In your post-mortem session, the observers agreed that supervision seemed to go very well, you are optimistic about productive outcomes, and you leave work, that day, with clear minds and consciences and repeat the cycle the following morning.

After a solid week of observing Sally, your nerves are frayed because whereas her "I's" diminished and greater pupil participation occurred, her teaching is still highly flavored by egocentricism, which she seems uncannily prepared to find new ways to express. No matter what Sally tries to do, she keeps crashing through as the possessor of knowledge, the giver or withholder of rewards, the fountainhead of ideas, the manipulator of destinies, and the major source of pace and direction in the class.

By the end of the first month of Sally's supervision, during which time you have left her alone for several days at a time to let her "consolidate her gains," it has become clear that Sally is still Sally, after all, in spite of your deliberate efforts to "modify" her. By this time, she has become impatient with your supervision, her anxiety level has gone up and she fidgets and squirms uncomfortably in supervision conferences. She has begun to think of you as pedants and has lost hope that you will ever be of much help to her. Your own frustrations and consequent feelings of inadequacy and guilt have produced emotional interference on your side with the result that your perceptions of Sally's teaching have become more and more stereotyped, your strategy sessions have become less and less well organized, and your supervision conferences have taken on the character of a tug of war. Sally feels that you're ganging up on her and mobilizes stronger and stronger defenses against you. She can now tune you out effectively. And, in spite of your stubborn resolution to "be helpful," you have a dawning realization of what is written on the wall.

I'll leave the conclusion of this melodrama to your imaginations.

Remembering my warning about the caricature, let's speculate about some psychological factors that may have been operating in Sally as you supervised her and let's tie the example to the question of superficial treatment in clinical supervision.

The first thing that becomes apparent in this case is that before Sally could be modified to your satisfaction, you had exhausted your repertoire of supervisory strategies. Thus, we have the question of whether supervisory strategies as we know them could be invented to make you more successful with Sally or whether, indeed, all possible strategies of superficial treatment, no matter how shrewd, would inevitably fail to transform Sally's regnant egocentricism. I do not mean for this question to be rhetorical. I am not giving you a straw man. We do not, in fact, know -- one way or the other.

Another notion that is relevant here is that although your treatment may be "superficial," i.e., although it may be consciously supervisory rather than psychotherapeutic, the relationships between symptom reduction and more pervasive psychological rehabilitations are subtle and complex. In point of fact, symptom reduction is occasionally a psychotherapeutic strategy and plays an important role in the broad context of treatment. The point is not so much to distinguish symptomatic treatment from deeper forms as it is to suggest that whereas the psychotherapist knows how to fit symptom reduction into a coordinated therapeutic program, we, as supervisors, do not. We are not equipped with understandings of where to go from there nor with techniques to implement therapeutic intentions or to afford appropriate protection to our supervisees.

Another problem that becomes immediately apparent is that whereas psychotherapy is unequivocally for the sake of the patient, supervision, although it may be deliberately intended to be for the teacher's sake, is, ultimately, for the sake of her teaching. In other words, our concern goes beyond the supervisee and focuses upon the pupils' well being and the quality of their school experiences. We have here a concrete example of the ethical problems whose existence I intimated earlier. Is it ethically proper to manipulate a teacher's personality for the sake of some ostensibly greater purpose? In effect, does the end justify the means in this context? Would participation by psychiatrists in supervision have any bearing upon this ethical issue, the other advantages of such participation nothwithstanding? If supervision attempts to manipulate psychological variables, is that tantamount to Orwellian tyranny over individual souls? And what conditions would alleviate the ethical problem? For example, would it make any ethical difference if supervisor-therapists, flying under their true colors, operated only upon the explicit invitation to do so by teachers? Is that condition psychologically naive? Would it defeat our supervisory purposes from the outset? I cannot state too emphatically, that these are not rhetorical questions either. We are not committed to developing supervisors who are equipped to make psychotherapeutic interventions. We are researching answers to these questions. It seems obvious that involvement of psychiatric personnel would be crucial even at the beginning stages of our inquiry.

Returning to our caricature of Sally, the evidence seems to suggest that "to be in control" of situations is something of a psychological necessity for her. Whether that is because of her compulsion to repeat experiences in which that condition was rewarding, or whether that is because her real or fantasied problems of control in childhood compell her to act out analogous situations over and over again, or whether that is attributable to the fact that whereas Sally does not usually take over control in most situations, her resolution of control problems is so brittle that under the stresses of teaching, in which her identity is deeply involved, she regresses to that archaic issue and mobilizes obsolete defenses, are things that we can't possibly know about given our present paucity of clinical constructs and diagnostic methods.

There is even serious question of whether, in the school milieu, it is possible, literally, for even a skillful psychodiagnostician to know about such things or to do anything about such things.

Neither do we know anything about whether or not Sally's apparent resistance to supervision, that is, the unyielding qualities of her egocentrism in the face of supervision that tries to reduce its symptoms, is attributable to transference relationships she has developed to the supervisors which are invisible to us. If it were the case that Sally's unresiliency derived partly from the fact that at unconscious levels she responded to the observation team as though it were a family of mothers and fathers and siblings and that that unconscious phenomenon recapitulated old problems of autonomy and viability in the family setting, we would be totally blind to the fact and impotent to deal with it. Again, I must point out, that even if we recognized the condition, the question would still remain of whether we should attempt to do anything about it. The ethical problem even touches upon the possibility of psychiatric referral where the supervisor might not undertake any direct treatment himself.

Returning to the present limits of clinical supervision that I implied before, another way to frame this problem is in terms of Mr. Seager's comments to you last Thursday. You may remember that in response to Dr. Cogan's question of how you know what is appropriate to do in a supervision conference and his question of what kinds of data would empower your supervision, Seager suggested that one source of data that should guide you is the feedback you get from the supervisee and from your colleagues while supervision is in progress. Implicitly, he enjoined you not to be so precommitted to a priori strategies that you'd be insensitive to relevant behavioral feedback that became evident during the conference. He explicitly enjoined you to think about the utility of such feedback and to develop strategies, diagnostic strategies, if you will, to record the stuff and to respond to it.

Where we are at this point, however -- and mind you, I am in full accord with Brad's injunction -- is at the point of recognition that perhaps our most frustrating present limitation is that in too many cases we are unable to interpret the feedback we get. We don't know how to make sense out of it. We are not equipped with appropriate psychological, interpretive constructs in which we can feel confident. What we do have, and its importance should not be understated, are relatively sophisticated backgrounds in education, and, in some cases, in relevant branches of psychology; we have intuitive powers that are often strong and reasonably correct, and, perhaps most important of all, we are unequivocally committed to retroactive examination of our intuitions. This is why we engage in open strategy sessions. Implicit in our operational paradigm of the cycle of supervision is first, the recognition that our operation is frequently intuitive and second, our determination to safeguard the integrity of what we do by ruthless, unrelenting, public examination of the inferences and intuitions upon which we operate.

It should also be apparent to you by now, that another sense in which psychological theory and treatment analogues become relevant to educational supervision, is in relation to the inferences we make or the hypotheses we advance relative to the likely learning outcomes that will result from the patterns of teaching we observe. In all of our talk about incidental learning we have, in truth, been making guesses. Insofar as our hypotheses derived from empirical findings associated with pupil-feedback, we may have minimized guessing. It is true, however, that our techniques for collecting pupil feedback in this practicum have been unsystematic and unrigorous until now and that, indeed, our thoughts about incidental outcomes have been hunches. I am reasonably secure in my belief that they have been educated hunches, by and large, but hunches they have been nonetheless.

So a second aspect of our present commitment is to try to discover whether touch-points exist between psychological theories and methods and treatment strategies, on the one hand, and a greater predictive certainty and intelligibility of teaching and learning behavior on the other.

I have tried to point out that if treatment analogues exist and if diagnostic and treatment practices are applicable, they might turn out to be applicable across the board. In the first place they might govern supervisors' treatment of interns. In the second place, they might constitute the substantive content of supervision such that the supervisor would teach the supervisee constructs and techniques for diagnosing and treating the pupils' learning.

At this point it is time to summarize, and I think my summary should establish a clearer definition of where we are, presently, in clinical supervision.

The principal limitation within which we operate is the superficial character of our supervisory treatment. We treat at a symptomatic level and do not attempt to reorder the psychological systems of our supervisees to any great extent. Indeed, we are unequipped to do so vis-a-vis our training and our professional competencies. Moreover, there are ethical and pragmatic questions relating to whether or not we should aim at more fundamental treatment outcomes. We do not yet have evidence to tell us whether, in the broad scheme of things, it may not be sufficient to the purposes of supervision to stop, comfortably, at symptomatic treatment. There is the possibility -- the distinct possibility -- that in most cases reduction of symptoms, by which I mean elimination of certain behavioral patterns from teaching, may suffice to produce the outcomes we are after. And there is the distinct possibility that in most cases our supervisees will be able to modify their behavior by deliberate intent, especially if we are persuasive when we supervise them.

It remains, however, that, at the very least, we might be more confident about our notions of what constitutes appropriate change and of what incidental learnings are likely to result from specific teaching patterns, if we had more sophisticated understanding of relevant psychology and more ready recourse to interpretive and diagnostic constructs in our work.

If the limitations of our current practice are impressive to you, our strengths should be at least as impressive. To my mind the glory of clinical supervision is that it has touched the heart of the matter. We have avoided most of the foibles of supervision that has come before and that is duly represented in the literature. We are close to teaching and we are becoming more potent in recording empirical data and in analyzing behavioral data than supervisors have ever been before. We are scrupulously careful to engage, systematically, in public, reflexive analyses, and in rigorous examination of our own thinking, our constructs, our interpretations, our intuitions, and our underlying assumptions. As I compare our practices with those that have preceded us, I cannot help, in all modesty, feeling that clinical supervision embodies a fundamental condition of intellectual honesty.

In spite of our limitations, there is no question that we have been genuinely helpful to many of the teachers we supervise. We have, often, been able to work from within their frames of reference and to engage with them in producing behavioral changes which generated new sources of satisfaction for the teachers in question. In large part, we avoid the pretentiousness of supervision that is armed with *a priori* values and that is satisfied only when it has remade teachers in its own image.

What is most encouraging of all to me is that by its very nature, clinical supervision has begun to yield the real evidence, the real data, on the basis of which serious research can commence. We are pretty thoroughly disenchanted and pretty well reconciled to open ourselves to reality and to deal with reality even though that may not be as much fun as it is, sometimes, to pursue professional fantasies to inevitably successful -- but blindfolded -- outcomes. Our pleasure is different. I think there is pleasure for us in hard work and intense engagement with problems that become multiplied every time we begin to do anything.

In spite of my feelings there are, of course, the dangers of becoming self-righteously rigid and of succumbing to self-deception, although I know of no other system of supervision that has as many protections against that built into its methodology.

By setting out my perceptions of what we can do and of what we cannot do at this moment, I have tried to clarify your understanding of where clinical supervision is in its development. By examples of supervisory problems, I have tried to indicate the directions in which our major research is being focused and have told you that to our minds the leading edge of supervision, its present frontier, if you will, is at the threshold of behavioral science and of psychology and psychotherapy particularly. Let my last word here be a repetition of the idea that we are not at all convinced that psychotherapeutic practices will necessarily follow. Rather, we are deeply intent upon formulating research that will yield data that will help us to find out.

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